University of Alberta

Canada's Public Colleges and Postsecondary Technical Institutions Involvement in International Education

by

Jacques Pierre Emile Hurabielle ©

A thesis submitted to the Faculty of Graduate Studies and Research in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor in Philosophy

in

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The undersigned certify that they have read, and recommended to the Faculty of Graduate Studies and Research for acceptance, a thesis entitled **Canada's Public Colleges and Postsecondary Technical Institutions involvement in International Education** submitted by Jacques Pierre Emile Hurabielle in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy in International and Intercultural Education.

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ABSTRACT

The study -- which rested on literature reviews, interviews and a survey of institutions -- covered the period since 1960 and concentrated on origins, evolution, ideological stances, and current and future state of Canadian public colleges and postsecondary technical institutions involvement in the South. These areas had thus far been objects of little research. The study reviewed developmental theories; examined historical factors in nations receiving Canadian educational assistance; investigated the evolution of Canadian vocational / technical education; documented activities of institutions; and made suggestions and recommendations for improving educational assistance.

Findings revealed that Canadian international education was influenced by modernization and human capital theories, and recently, the New Right. Over the last three decades, a shift from a humanitarian perspective to a pragmatic, "bottom line" attitude consistent with neo-liberalism was observed in Canadian aid. International education became more of an enterprise in itself, and a vehicle to promote Canadian business abroad while less of an assistance tool.

Over time, numerous institutions and agencies became involved, fostering competition rather than cooperation, inefficient use of resources and frustration to participating institutions and recipients. This indicated a need for improved organization which is critical in the context of multi-lateral, multi-national undertakings.

The study showed that, despite obvious achievements, Canadian international education exhibited the following weaknesses: lack of national coordination, funding, appreciation and support; low status and support within institutions, as well as

questionable staffing practices; absence of specialists; uneasiness with entrepreneurship; weak promotion of services; dwindling resources; lack of strategies; progressive loss of competitiveness in technological leadership and cost of services. Cumbersome student visa procedures also made attending Canadian institutions more difficult than it needed to be.

The study made recommendations for action. These included establishing a federal body dedicated to supporting and marketing international education (Educational Team Canada); fostering among administrators the recognition of developmental and financial potentials of international education; ensuring that institutions staff their departments adequately (quantitatively and qualitatively); establishing funds for exploratory activities; training and hiring international education practitioners in a logical manner -- with the provision of a tentative minimal curriculum; diversifying regional focus; and restoring international education humanitarian aspects.

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LIST OF ACRONYMS

ACCC	Association of Canadian Community Colleges
APEC	Asian Pacific Economic Cooperation
AUCC	Association of Universities and Colleges of Canada
CBIE	Canadian Bureau for International Education
CÉGEP	Collège d'enseignement général et professionnel
CIDA	Canadian International Development Agency
ESL	English as a Second Language
HRD	Human Resources Development
IBRD	International Bank for Reconstruction and Development (WB)
IDB	Inter-American Development Bank
IMF	International Monetary Fund
MNC	Multinational Corporation
MOU	Memorandum Of Understanding
NAFTA	North American Free Trade Agreement
NGO	Non-governmental Organization
NICs	Newly Industrialized Countries
OECD	Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development
TNC	Transnational Corporation
TOEFL	Test of English as a Second Language
WB	World Bank
WUSC	World University Service of Canada

GLOSSARY OF EXPRESSIONS AND TERMS

South	Generic term widely used today in development literature to describe poor, less-advanced, less industrialized nations -- most of which have a colonial past. This term has largely displaced the label of *Third World*. Usually used in conjunction with North, a generic term describing advanced, industrialized, developed nations -- such as the US, Canada and most of Western Europe.
North	Generic describing advanced, industrialized, developed nations -- such as the US, Canada and most of Western Europe. Usually used in conjunction with South, term used to describe poor, less-advanced and less industrialized nations.
Métropole	French word (*métropole*) commonly used during colonial times to describe European countries having colonies. This word has been adopted in the English language to describe industrial countries of the world and to distinguish them from less developed ones.

CHAPTER I -- OVERVIEW OF STUDY

Introduction

The major purpose of this study was to examine Canada's involvement in educational aid to developing countries from the 1960's to 1997. Specifically, the study concentrated on origins, evolution, theoretical and ideological stances, as well as current and future state of Canadian public colleges and postsecondary technical / vocational institutions' involvement in the South. College and postsecondary technical / vocational international education is, henceforth, referred to as international education. The first part of this chapter provides a background on the emergence and evolution of international education activities in Canadian colleges and technical institutions since 1960. It is against this background that the study unfolds.

International clients, especially in developing nations, face several important challenges, including the need to adapt to an ever-accelerating process of globalization. This process is accompanied by a demand for a clearer understanding of the world beyond their borders, and for acknowledging universalization of industrial, occupational, and developmental paradigms (Cetron & Davies, 1991; Seers, 1980; Toffler & Toffler, 1991; and Von Laue, 1987). Nations in the South face a substantial decrease in financing pure assistance projects, and existing debts often prevent them from entering into new loan agreements. To this predicament must be added the relatively recent geographical re-allocation of finances. Recently, the opening of the Pacific Rim and post-perestroika thaw of Warsaw Pact countries have generated a marked change in fund allocation. This change is characterized by a decrease of funding for Latin American as well as African assistance, with a concomitant increase of interest and financial support for Asian and Eastern European development (Government of Canada, 1995).

In the above-described context, it is an expectation for Canadian foreign clients to achieve economic self-sufficiency. This self-sufficiency is perceived by most providers and clients to be highly dependent on the existence of skilled sectors in national populations. Currently, according to experts from international agencies and lending bodies, developing nations need middle-career professionals -- especially at the skilled technician and technologist levels (Fajnzylber, 1990; and Hurabielle, 1995). Development of a middle-career workforce is crucial to the successful integration of developing countries in the global arena (Baez, 1988; and Todaro, 1986). Not only do international subsidiaries operating in these countries look for skilled workers, but emergence and survival of indigenous industries is conditional upon their existence. Foremost in development of a skilled workforce is training in science and technology (Gallart, 1990; and Gomes-Pereira et al., 1986), with special emphasis on communication and computer technology -- for these technologies increasingly link individual nations to the global community. It is in this context that Canadian international education unfolds.

World Context

To understand Canadian international education, it is necessary to recognize that it did not develop and evolve in a vacuum, but in a specific context and under specific influences. Canadian international education is influenced by modernization (Lerner, 1958; McLelland, 1967 and 1969; and Parsons, 1973 and 1977) and human capital theories (Harbison & Myers, 1964; and Harbison, 1973). These theories posit that progress of nations is intimately tied to their urbanization, rationalization, industrialization and democratization, as well as to training and educational levels of their populations. Although the precise nature of this training and education varied over the period covered by the study, it typically had a vocational / technical flavour.

Emergence of Canadian international education, in the early 1960's, coincided with political independence of many British colonies in Africa (Chisiza, 1961). It was not surprising, therefore, that Canada's first theatre of operation in this field was Africa. It was also natural for newly independent nations to turn to Canada -- a dominantly English speaking, developed country with a colonial past and limited imperialist aspirations -- for their training needs (Government of Canada, 1995).

At the time Canadian international education emerged, Canada itself had just embarked on establishing a technical / vocational system of postsecondary education (Berghofer & Vladicka, 1980; and Bryce, 1970). Indeed, the mid-1960's was a period of intense educational activity in Canada. In the aftermath of the Sputnik revolution, realizing that importing skilled technicians and workers from Europe was no longer an appropriate strategy to meet its labour needs, Canada embarked on development and implementation of a quality technical / vocational education system. This undertaking culminated in the passing of the Technical and Vocational Training Assistance Act (TVTAA), and creation of numerous colleges, technical / vocational schools and institutes of technology from coast-to-coast (Bryce, 1970; and Government of Canada, 1968). Due to the establishment of such technical / vocational system, the developing world perceived Canada to be an ideal teacher (Simpson & Sisson, 1989).

The period when Canadian international education emerged was representative of the Cold War era. East and West vied to penetrate newly independent nations and bring them into their respective spheres of influence. Many developing nations, conscious of this fact, made considerable efforts to avoid aligning with major ideological blocks (Chisiza, 1961). To such nations, Canada did not present the same danger for it was a country in transition -- at the mid-point, historically, between being a British dominion, and achieving the status of industrialised, advanced nation. Sharing of a common British and French colonial past, and Canada's less aggressive ideological alignment proved attractive to many African countries. Canada was a safe and viable alternative to an overt ideological commitment to the U.S.A. or USSR

As of late, Canada has been swept by New Right ideologies, and neo-liberalism in particular (Brodie, 1996; and Marchak, 1993). Neo-liberalism, an economics-rooted ideology implying a return to many of the ideas of eighteenth century classical political economy, has impacted on most areas of Canadian realities, with education -- at home and abroad -- no exception (Calvert, 1993).

It is clear that industrialized nations in general, and Canada in particular, continue to feel they have an important role to play in development of the South. Aside from fulfilling its historically humanitarian aspect, Canadian assistance to foreign nations currently offers the country and its institutions several attractive opportunities.

Facing decreases in operational budgets, hard-to-implement cost recovery measures, staff reductions, and limited opportunities for staff mobility and development, Canadian institutions are now in a position to benefit from international education activities as much as their clients do. International activities can clearly be revenue-generating undertakings (Simpson & Sisson, 1989). They also offer a modest arena for creating employment within Canadian institutions (international education departments administration, office staff, etc.). Participation in international education offers viable alternatives to staff reduction. Staff declared redundant can be seconded to international education projects, or allocated to training of international students with special curricular requirements. Staff members of Canadian colleges and postsecondary technical / vocational institutions can also look upon international projects as opportunities for personal growth and professional development. Also of benefit to Canadian institutions is the influx of international students paying favourable fee differentials (Simpson & Sisson, 1989). International undertakings in general, and in international education in particular, present an excellent vehicle to promote Canadian trade and industry abroad.

Reactive Response and Absence of Strategic Framework

Early involvement in international education often resulted from informal personal contacts between heads of states and federal or provincial leaders. At the early stages, only occasionally did Canada's involvement come as the result of a formal request. Formal or informal opportunities were usually enthusiastically pursued on humanitarian and quasi-philanthropic grounds. They were rarely perceived by institutions and practitioners as being more than mere occasional opportunities. Little recognition existed that international education could grow into a specialty in its own right.

Canadian international education was very much an informal affair. As such, it did not require development and implementation of carefully devised strategies or frameworks (Simpson & Sisson, 1989). Institutions and practitioners considered loose contracts and terms of reference, and broad guidelines supplied by emerging agencies and organizations as being than sufficient to guide international education undertakings. In this context, participating institutions responded via their regular administration (not international education departments or units), seconding available personnel for a given length of time (Simpson & Sisson, 1989).

Regional Focus

In terms of regional focus, Canadian international education has experienced changes over time. In the early days, Africa clearly appears to have been the major locus of activity. In the 1970's and 1980's, activities were more balanced. During these two decades, Latin America and Asia also became objects of Canadian educational assistance (CIDA, 1979a, 1979b, 1979c).

Later, during the period ranging from the mid-1980's to the present, the focus of Canadian international education changed markedly. Africa and Latin America (with possible exceptions of Mexico and Chile) became much less of a target for Canadian educational activities while newly industrialized countries of Asia (such as South Korea, Taiwan, Indonesia and the Philippines) and post-perestroika Eastern Europe witnessed an increased level of Canadian involvement. This change is in no small part related to the fact that governments, agencies and lending bodies perceive investing in either of the latter two regions to be less of a financial gamble (Government of Canada, 1995).

Disciplinary Focus

Canadian international education, over the years, exhibited a definite focus on skill training. Although occasional exceptions exist, the focus has largely been limited to certain specific sectors. The main thrust was on preparation of labour forces in the electrical and mechanical areas, modern agricultural sector, and exploitation of natural resources -- notably in mining and petroleum exploitation. Other technical, vocational, or para-professional careers -- in business, health, environmental sciences, communication, and other fields -- received less attention or have only been the object of more recent emphasis.

Change of Purpose

In parallel with changes in regional and disciplinary focus, Canadian international education has also experienced perceptible philosophical and conceptual changes, especially at the articulated level. A shift from a humanitarian perspective to a pragmatic, "bottom line" attitude is articulated in government literature (Government of Canada, 1995). In the early stages, Southern development and welfare have been the centre of

Canadian international undertakings, along with a modest component of staff development opportunity and a limited national trade orientation. Since that time, Canada has developed an over-riding concern for revenue-generation, establishment of strong trade mechanisms, and opening of markets to Canadian industries. In the context of neo-liberalism, Canadian international education has become more of an enterprise in itself, and an effective vehicle to promote Canadian business and industry abroad while less of an assistance tool (Barker-Leginsky & Andrews, 1994; and Government of Canada, 1995).

Need for a Systematic Approach

Over time more institutions and agencies became involved, each following largely its own path. This brought about competition rather than cooperation, less-than-efficient use of resources, and frustration to both participating institutions and recipients (Simpson & Sisson, 1989). Eventually, organizations such as the Association of Canadian Community Colleges (ACCC) and others (ACCC, 1986) made attempts to streamline and systematize Canadian educational assistance.

Although the level of organization of educational assistance has improved with time it is still not ideal. A higher level of strategic organization is needed to allocate resources more effectively and efficiently, respond to requests in a concerted manner, and maximize benefits to all involved parties -- recipients, institutions, and Canadian staff (Simpson & Sisson, 1989). This need for enhanced organization is even more critical in the context of multi-lateral, multi-national assistance undertakings -- a form of aid-provision increasingly becoming the norm.

Focus of the Study

The focus of the study was the involvement of Canadian colleges and technical institutions in international education. A threefold approach was taken in the gathering of data. First, a review of leading development theories -- with emphasis on modernization, human capital and neo-liberalism -- was completed. Second, interviews of personnel experienced in international education were conducted. Third, a survey of international education practitioners in the field was undertaken to document their perception of what happened over the past thirty years. The time period covered by the study was categorized into three components as follows: early era -- 1960 to 1970; middle-era -- 1971 to 1985; and the later era -- 1986 to 1997.

Major Purposes of the Study

Contrary to other educational fields, Canadian international education in the college and technical postsecondary sector has not been the object of wide research through the years. As such, a lack of historical knowledge exists among practitioners, institutions and clients. Furthermore, the ideological and paradigmatic contexts in which international activities unfold have received little or no attention. Consequently, an absence of information characterizes international education at the conceptual, institutional and practical levels.

The study had, therefore, several purposes: (a) document the emergence and evolution of Canadian college and postsecondary technical / vocational education assistance to the South; (b) summarize developments currently taking place in the field; (c) provide Canadian and foreign international education practitioners, scholars, and students with an overview of the international involvement of Canadian colleges and postsecondary technical / vocational institutions; (d) determine which paradigms and ideologies have influenced Canadian educational assistance; and (e) develop a more complete understanding of Canadian contributions and new directions now occurring in educational assistance.

Specific Research Questions

The study addressed directly five fundamental questions and their components which guided the development of research instruments. These questions, focusing on the major purposes of the study, were:

1. Where does Canadian college and postsecondary technical / vocational education international assistance originate from?
2. What has been achieved in Canadian college and postsecondary technical / vocational education international assistance?
3. What is currently being achieved in Canadian college and postsecondary technical

/ vocational education international assistance?

4. What are trends and future needs in Canadian college and postsecondary technical / vocational education international assistance?
5. How can these trends and future needs of Canadian college and postsecondary technical / vocational education international assistance be accommodated ?

In addition to the specific research questions posed, the study hoped to gain some insight into theoretical and ideological currents that have influenced Canadian international education in the past, and that continue to influence it today. These insights were gained from inferential analysis of the data.

Significance of Study

Within the Canadian college/technical postsecondary sector, few studies have concentrated on international education and its impact on the sector. By focusing on international education the study is of significance to Canadian colleges and postsecondary technical / vocational institutions; international education practitioners; Canadian business and industry; and foreign clients and students for it provides information thus far lacking and an analysis thereof.

Institutions and International Education Practitioners

Historical and conceptual perspectives yielded by the study make available to institutions and practitioners a valuable tool for decision-making, priority-setting, resources allocation, budgeting, development of multi-institutional ventures, and policy-making. The study also presents suggestions for more effective coordination of international education, composition of training programs for practitioners, and logical recruitment of international personnel.

Canadian Business and Industry

Suggestions, recommendations, and conclusions of the study are of particular interest to Canadian business. These sections attract attention to the new roles business could play in the global arena. Furthermore, the same sections go a long way in helping define possible partnerships -- direct or in association with educational institutions, as well as opportunities for investment and involvement.

Foreign Clients and Students

To foreign clients in general, and international students in particular, an overview of the field of Canadian college and postsecondary technical / vocational education assistance over a period of nearly four decades is provided while giving a glimpse of possible future developments. The latter aspect may help international clients in defining ways in which they could benefit from Canadian assistance and/or engage in new partnerships with Canada. Finally, the study provides international students with useful information when they, or those sponsoring them, select a foreign institution as the establishment where they wish to complete their education or receive additional training.

Limitations

Several important limitations were inherent in the design of this study.

1. Results were limited by the selected methodology. Since the study relied on surveys, interviews and documentation only, other types of data available through alternative methodologies were not considered.
2. Interviews were conducted from May to July, 1997 with the purpose of obtaining early insight into the history and the nature of international activities engaged into by Canadian public colleges and postsecondary technical / vocational institutions.
3. The survey was limited to a five month period (September 1997 to January, 1998).
4. The lack of similar research limited the comparability of the findings of this study, and prevented gaining direct support and corroboration from earlier studies.
5. The arbitrary decision of limiting the study to Canadian public colleges and postsecondary technical / vocational institutions meant that findings would likely not be generalizable to Canadian private colleges and technical / vocational institutions, to comparable institutions outside of Canada, nor to Canadian or foreign universities. Consequently, the study does not represent an accurate description of Canadian tertiary international education as a whole.
6. Data on international education at the surveyed institutions were limited to information received from one specific respondent at each institution. It is, therefore, conceivable that a limited degree of bias exists and that different

respondents could have given somewhat different responses.

Delimitations

The study had several delimitations imposed in order to make it a manageable endeavour and permit an adequate examination of Canadian colleges and postsecondary technical / vocational institutions involvement in international education.

1. Colleges and postsecondary technical / vocational institutions were defined as institutions providing one- or two-year training leading to diplomas or certificates, belonging to the public sector, and having completion of secondary schooling as a prerequisite for enrollment (Canadian Education Statistics Council, 1996; OECD, 1992; and Picot, 1980). University education with a technical / vocational orientation, as well as college and postsecondary technical / vocational education provided by private institutions were excluded from the study.
2. The study was not designed to be cross-institutional or comparative. It concentrated solely on the evolution and operation of international education activities in Canadian colleges and postsecondary technical / vocational institutions as a whole.
3. The study dealt only with the international student population in terms of demographics, not in terms of individual students or student sub-groups.
4. The intent of the researcher was to provide a more complete understanding of the past, present and future of Canadian international education involvement, not to investigate specific level of ancillary services made available to international clients once they study in Canada.
5. The list of institutions to be surveyed was compiled from two distinct http listings: (1) member and non-member institutions listing provided by ACCC; and (2) Government of Canada listing of colleges and universities (the latter being omitted from the final list). No other source was consulted to create the final list of 123 institutions. It is therefore possible -- although unlikely -- that the study missed a few establishments.

Generalizability of Findings

While each postsecondary institution in Canada exhibits its own strategies in international education, Canadian colleges and postsecondary technical / vocational institutions share many characteristics. Students train to enter mid-level careers; that is, careers located between those characterized by an unskilled labour force, and those engaged in by skilled professionals. Institutions offer training in comparable expertise areas. They grant comparable credentials, after comparable lengths of training. Institutions hire similar staff -- practitioners rather than academics. They are usually affiliated with the same international agencies and groups -- Canadian Bureau for International Education (CBIE), Association of Canadian Community Colleges (ACCC) and others. They are, therefore, exposed to similar opportunities and are expected to operate in relatively similar ways. Notwithstanding possible cultural, regional, and historical differences, Canadian colleges and postsecondary technical / vocational institutions appear to share a similar ideological and developmental orientation. They conform to capitalist manpower development paradigms rather than socialist or emancipatory models and they share the same ideological, political and financial challenges.

Overview of the Methodology

The research design combined qualitative and quantitative elements and comprised three major discrete components (for a holistic diagrammatic representation of the research, see Appendix # 1): (1) documentary/historical research; (2) semi-structured interviews; and (3) survey of institutions.

Documentary Research

To address the research questions, information was first drawn from documents, such as books, reports, conference proceedings, bulletins, new releases, all of which was either available locally or via the internet. Part of this documentary research dealt with background information (history, theories, regional development, etc.). The other part focused on sources shedding light on directives, policies and trends in Canadian international involvement. Documentary research provided the study with a broad background against which it could unfold in a coherent manner. It also permitted the construction of the conceptual framework presented in Figure 2.1 (Chapter II).

Semi-structured Interviews

Five semi-structured interviews were conducted to gain first-hand knowledge of early and current issues in college and postsecondary technical / vocational education assistance. These interviews targeted seasoned international education practitioners, all previously associated in an administrative capacity with a representative postsecondary technical / vocational institution in Western Canada.

Interviews used a specially designed schedule (see Appendix # 2) and were semi-structured in that their schedule was used as a guide, not as a limitation imposed on the contribution made by the interviewee (Bogdan & Biklen, 1992). Sessions were recorded, transcribed at a later date and analysed using customary research techniques.

The purpose of these interviews was to give the researcher a strong grounding in the field at an early stage in the study. They contributed significantly to identification of major issues, problems, difficulties, trends and tendencies, as well as strengths and potentials in Canadian international education assistance.

Survey of Institutions

Information about international education activities in colleges and postsecondary technical / vocational institutions, as well as student population demographics in these institutions was then obtained via an in-depth survey of Canadian establishments meeting the operational definition of colleges or postsecondary technical / vocational education institution. This survey targeted the population of Canadian postsecondary technical / vocational institutions (n=123) (see Appendix # 3). The survey was the most crucial part of the study as it provided a holistic view of what international involvement has been, and of what it presently is in Canadian colleges and postsecondary technical / vocational institutions. To that effect, the survey instrument (see Appendices # 4 and # 5) placed considerable emphasis on the nature of international activities, regional and disciplinary focus of these activities, chronological distribution of these activities, international education departments structure and administration, and student demographics.

Topical Organization of the Manuscript

Chapter I provides a synoptic review of international education efforts in Canada and presents a look at current Canadian involvement in providing training to international students. Chapter I also focuses on institutions, their international student population, development of specific research questions, issues pertaining to study significance, study selection, limitations and delimitations.

Chapter II consists of a comprehensive Literature Review. This review focuses on development and social theories, developing nations' history, and international education evolution at international and national levels. The purpose of Chapter II is to synthesize clearly the information resulting from the relevant literature review. This information provides the reader with the necessary background and conceptual framework to successfully comprehend the remaining chapters.

Chapter III focuses exclusively on methods employed in the study. It shares with the reader all qualitative and quantitative aspects of the study. Particular emphasis is placed on research instrument design (to conduct interviews and surveys), data gathering and analysis, issues of rigour and ethics, and research planning and organization.

Chapter IV presents findings from the semi-structured interviews.

Chapter V presents findings from the population survey.

In **Chapter VI**, findings presented in Chapters IV, and V are discussed and integrated with the literature review. This discussion is held to illuminate the dynamics of international education as they exist in Canadian colleges and postsecondary technical / vocational institutions. Through an in-depth discussion of the study findings, Chapter VI also provides a natural progression towards making recommendations and suggestions, and drawing conclusions.

Chapter VII, the last chapter of the thesis, presents a summary of the research, suggestions, recommendations, and conclusions. In this final chapter, recommendations concerning Canada's involvement in postsecondary technical / vocational education are presented.

CHAPTER II -- REVIEW OF THEORETICAL AND HISTORICAL LITERATURE

Preamble

Since international education cannot be discussed in isolation from important theoretical, historical and ideological factors, Chapter II reviews theories of development, historical occurrences and ideologies that have influenced Canadian international education. Later, in Chapter VI, these theories, occurrences and ideologies will provide the necessary framework for analysis and discussion of data yielded by interviews and the survey. Modernization and human capital theories, educational changes in Canada, and -- to a somewhat lesser degree -- the position the country occupied in the international context at the time it actively engaged in educational assistance were most significant among early factors. These theories had the greatest impact on Canadian international education because they were the dominant theoretical views at the time of its emergence. Of more recent significance were thoughts emanating from the New Right and more specifically from its neo-liberal component.

Classical Thought

Classical thoughts can be categorized as ideas pertaining to classical political economy, and others belonging to classical sociology. Both classical political economy and classical sociology had an impact on all subsequent theories of development.

Classical Political Economy

Classical political economy rests on the ideas of Adam Smith and David Ricardo -- eighteenth century British economists. Both Smith and Ricardo understood society on the basis of its economic processes only, with special emphasis on their long-term aspects. Consequently, little or no importance was given to social, cultural or political considerations. Smith stressed the paramount importance of market dynamics as a source of economic growth. For him, this growth depended on work specialization or social division of labour, organization of production, accumulation of capital and investment of profits (Martinussen, 1997).

Ricardo believed that growth rested on technical innovation and the enhancement of international trade. This enhancement was achieved by maximizing comparative advantage, securing the best possible trade policy, and bringing work specialization to an international level. Ricardo established an early analysis of the economic benefits of the international division of labour (Biaujeaud, 1988; Blaug, 1958; and Ricardo, 1971).

Classical Sociology

Emile Durkheim and Max Weber were salient among classical sociologists who eventually influenced modernization (Martinussen, 1997). Their contributions brought social and political elements to what was otherwise a purely economic discourse. Durkheim focussed on the impact of the division of labour on societies. Weber identified how Calvinism influenced early European capitalism, and attracted attention to the influence motivation and rationality had on one's societal realities (Allahar, 1995). As discussed in the next section, Durkheim's and Weber's thoughts were blended and echoed in Talcott Parsons's functionalist analyses of modern and traditional societies (Parsons, 1985), Lerner's theory of social antecedents for development (Lerner, 1958) and Rostow's stage theory of modernization (Rostow, 1971).

Emergence of Modernization Theory

The concept of being developed, which emerged after World War II, was very closely related to modernization theory, and the notion of modernization and industrialization in a late capitalism context. As explained by Larrain (1994), modernization theory started

> with an implicit or explicit reference to a dichotomy between two ideal types: the traditional society (also called "rural", "backward" or "underdeveloped") and the modern society (or "urban", "developed", "industrial"). This distinction described two ideal types of social structure which were somehow historically connected by means of a continuous evolutionary process which followed certain general laws. The idea was that all societies followed a similar historical course which gained in complexity as it departed from one polar and moves towards the other. Since certain societies had already industrialized, they became the basis on which the 'industrial society paradigm' and the ideal typical process of transition could be constructed. Traditional societies were supposed to follow the same pattern of change undergone earlier on by developed nations. Modernization theory, therefore, sought to identify in the

> organizations and/or history of industrial countries the social variables and institutional factors whose change was crucial for their process of development, in order to facilitate the process for the newly developing countries. (p. 87)

Modernization roots can be traced back to western capitalism (Chilcote, 1984; and Maddison, 1982) and exhibit particularly strong ties to early classical political economy as expressed by Adam Smith and David Ricardo (Larrain, 1994). Several ideas common to both Smith and modernization theory deserve further elaboration. First, Smith and modernization theorists saw productivity as being directly related to accumulation of material wealth; accordingly, the more productive a nation, the higher its material wealth was and that of its citizens. Second, machines and technology were deemed useful mechanisms to increase productivity (Smith, 1937 and 1995); therefore, better technology brought about higher productivity.

Third, Smith and modernization proponents considered development to be an extension of the division of labour, as a specialized workforce fostered a higher level of development because "the division of labour, however, so far as it could be introduced, occasioned, in every art, a proportionable increase of the productive powers of labour" (Smith, 1986, p.110). Fourth, development further increased when the workforce engaged in more productive activities. Fifth, capitalist processes of production and accumulation were preferred alternatives to traditional squandering of surpluses (Baechler, 1976; Heilbroner & Malone, 1987; and Martin, 1983). Sixth, Smith and his followers perceived expansion of markets and liberalization of international trade to be highly desirable and intimately related to successful development (Smith, 1937 and 1995).

Seventh, Smith and modernization adepts conceived society as a hierarchical class arrangement, albeit a harmonious and consensual one (Brown, 1994). Smith viewed his society as one made of three classes: those living from rent, those living from wage, and those living from profit (Fitzgibbons, 1995; and Larrain, 1994). Modern societies also recognized hierarchical categories, under the labels of upper-, middle-, and working-class. Lastly, as Smith did earlier, proponents of modernization perceived North/South ventures and relationships to be potentially beneficial to both parties.

From Ricardo, modernization also borrowed several important ideas. It adopted the concept of increased commodity values via labour input (Biaujeaud, 1988; Blaug, 1958; and Ricardo, 1971). The model of class-based society proposed by Ricardo could also be found in modernization, albeit somewhat modified to accommodate the notion of increased harmony (Peach, 1993).

In addition to the prominence of Smith and Ricardo's influence, modernization exhibited significant connections with other ideas from the North. For instance, it had substantial ties with the Weberian notions of Protestant Ethic and entrepreneurial spirit (McClelland, 1969; Oakley, 1994; Parsons, 1977; and Todaro, 1984). Modernization also had more than passing links with early structural functionalist political science (Allahar, 1995), as it presupposed a class-based society and a systemic social organization rooted in social and functional specialization (Parsons, 1985). In modern societies, therefore, social inequities were legitimized on the basis of functional differences (Allahar, 1995).

As a precondition for the development of modernization theory was the identification of several limitations to development economics, that is, when neo-classical and Keynesian economics were applied to countries in the South. Development economists attempted to identify opportunities and preconditions for economic growth (Leys, 1996). Their preoccupation with this growth was long-term and they perceived the role of the state to be important in economic growth (Martinussen, 1997). Although this theoretical stance still supported increased growth and production, it recognized the importance of fighting poverty, discovering the reasons for unemployment, and improving standards of living. The latter was an obvious departure from classical political economy which stressed the importance of the market.

For nations to become modern, fundamental changes in their cultural, ideological, political, social, psychological and economic spheres had to occur. Modern developed nations were literate, future oriented, based on entrepreneurship and achievement, meritocratic, democratic, outward-looking, and capitalist (Lerner, 1958; Lipset, 1967 and 1986; and McClelland, 1970). In other words, these nations followed the western industrial model in general, and that of the United States in particular.

Non-modern, less-developed or underdeveloped nations did not exhibit desirable internal characteristics (Lerner, 1958). They failed to follow the example of successful development provided by the North (Allahar, 1995). These nations comprised that part of the world commonly referred to as the Third World or, more recently, the South.

The notion that capital accumulation and economic growth led to the highest possible state of development, and that successful development depended on the presence of certain propitious internal societal factors was central to the concept of modernization (Larrain, 1994). In this context, industrialized nations of the North represented the epitome of modernity and development (Allahar, 1995). These developed nations were not only ideal development models for the South to follow, but they were also excellent sources for guidance, funds, policy, aid and assistance for needy countries of the South (Hayter & Watson, 1984; Inter-American Development Bank, 1981; and World Bank, 1991).

Although, in the context of modernization, to be developed was largely to be economically developed, the theory addressed more than economic concerns. Modernization presented a multiplicity of integrated components: economic, psychological, social, ideological, cultural, and political (Larrain, 1994; and Todaro, 1984) .

Modernization Theory Comes of Age

The contemporary concept of modern and developed versus traditional and underdeveloped is relatively novel. It first appeared in the years immediately following Bretton Woods (Centre for Concern, 1996; and Global Policy Forum, 1996). Modernization followers considered nations characterized by certain political, social, psychological, ideological, cultural and economic orientations (similar to those prevailing in the North) to be modern and developed (Allahar, 1995). Similarly, they viewed nations failing to exhibit these orientations as backwards and underdeveloped (Larrain, 1994; and Rostow, 1981). The latter category eventually engulfed the South. To modernization theorists, underdevelopment was clearly attributable to severe internal deficiencies plaguing the South, many of which centred around attributes broadly referred to as cultural (Lerner, 1958; Lipset, 1967 and 1986; McClelland, 1970; and Parsons, 1977). Indeed, as mentioned by Lipset in his discussion of Latin American development, "structural conditions make development possible; cultural factors determine whether the possibility becomes an actuality" (1967, p. 3).

Modern citizens, like societies in which they lived, had identifiable traits. McClelland considered the individual's intrinsic need to achieve to be important among these traits (1967, 1969, and 1970). For him, the need for achievement was a measurable quantity (n-Achievement) defined as "a desire to do well, not so much for the sake of social recognition or prestige, but to attain an inner feeling of personal accomplishment" (1970, p. 179). Furthermore, he considered "n-Achievement to be a precursor of economic growth" (1970, p. 184). McClelland also shared the views of Max Weber and believed in the existence of a conceptual relationship between the desire for achievement, Protestantism, Calvinism and spirit of capitalism (Allahar, 1995).

Empathy, too, ranked high in the psychological make-up of the modern citizen; this empathy was the ability to imagine oneself as a modern (typically western) individual, and desire to assume the role (Lerner, 1958). Closely associated with this propensity, was the fact that modern individuals were outward-looking and future-oriented (Lerner, 1958). Above all, they had positivistic and instrumental inclinations, and based their decisions on rational choice rather than on emotional factors and traditional influences (Allahar, 1995). Indeed, as mentioned by Lerner (1958),

> a society has to encourage rationality, for the calculus of choice shapes individual behaviour and conditions it rewards. People come to see the future as manipulable rather than ordained and their personal prospects in terms of achievement rather than heritage. (p. 48)

Furthermore, in modern societies, people were driven by ambition rather than inhibited by resignation.

Rooted in structural functionalist sociology and neo-evolutionism (Parsons, 1973 and 1977), modernization perceived social change as being almost solely related to moving from a traditional society to a modern one (Lerner, 1958). Other concerns did not seem to enter the social equation (Allahar, 1995). Modernization theorists described modern societies as being urban, specialized, class-based, and highly participatory. In these societies, "increasing urbanization has tended to raise literacy; rising literacy has tended to increase media exposure; increasing media exposure has gone with wider economic participation and political participation" (Lerner 1958, p. 46). Conversely, for modernization adepts non-modern societies were rural, not specialized, group-based instead of class-based, and characterized by a lack of economic and political participation (Hoogvelt, 1976; and Lerner, 1958).

Ideology, as far as modernization was concerned, could only spread in a modern society. Ideological maturity depended largely on processes of urbanization and widespread literacy (Lerner, 1958). As mentioned earlier, when people lived in close proximity, and when they become literate, mass media emerged (Lerner, 1958). Mass media and the associated spread of ideas fostered educated opinions and a higher degree of political participation for, in modern societies, there was "an enormous proportion of people who are expected to 'have opinions' on public matters -- and the corollary expectation of these people that their opinions will matter" (Lerner 1958, p. 51). Sharing of opinions, modernization posited, would lead to sharing of common modern values and eventually, to consensus. Mass media, therefore, played a key role in reaching ideological maturity and achieving modern development (Lerner, 1958).

The high degree of opinion-generation and value-sharing encountered in a climate of media-fostered ideology presented considerable political ramifications. Indeed, modernization proponents stated that it was shared ideology and its associated notion of consensus that facilitated the move from non-democratic to democratic government -- form of governance referred to by Lerner as the "crowning institution of the participant society" (1958, p. 64). In modern nations, there existed a

> discernible tendency to emphasize "other-directedness" -- namely, reliance on the opinion of particular others, rather than on traditions, for guidance in social and political behaviour. Public opinion had, in these countries, become a major source of guidance for the individual. Those countries which had developed the mass media further and faster -- the press, the radio, the public-address system -- were also the ones who were developing more rapidly economically. (McClelland 1970, p. 186)

It is not surprising, therefore, that modern nations boast some sort of liberal democratic government (Allahar, 1995; and Cammack, 1985). As a corollary, nations exhibiting other forms of political regimes (Potter, 1995), for example socialist, could not possibly claim to be truly modern and developed (Allahar, 1995; and Larrain, 1994).

In terms of cultural development, modern societies were future-looking, secular, and engaged in consumerism. They had successfully shed their traditionalism to embrace modernity (Lerner, 1958). These societies expressed their successful transition by adopting western tastes, aspirations and demeanour (McClelland, 1967, 1969, and 1970). On the contrary, underdeveloped societies still operated within constraints of traditionalism (Lerner, 1958). As such, they were particularistic instead of universalistic, and invariably oriented toward the past (Lipset, 1967). For Lerner, "the true Transitional was defined, dynamically, by what he wanted to become. What differentiated him from his Traditional peers was a different latent structure of aptitudes and attitudes" (1958, p. 72). Non-modern societies failed to exhibit the hallmarks of successful westernization and modernity (Lerner, 1958; and Von Laue, 1987).

Economic development was likely the most notorious component of modernization and, as such, had customarily received the highest amount of emphasis among the public (Todaro, 1984). Consequently, for the lay person, economic development and modernization were virtually synonymous. Although economic development was preponderant in modernization, it would be a serious error to assimilate the two without careful distinction.

Rostow, the leading proponent of economic modernization, identified "all societies, in their economic dimensions, as lying within one of five categories: the traditional society, the pre-conditions for take-off, the take-off, the drive to maturity, and the age of high mass-consumption" (1971, p. 4). These categories ranked societies from less-developed or traditional to most-developed or based on mass-consumption, the latter being the ultimate objective of the entire modernization process.

Essential to modernization was economic development based on a series of stages among which the take-off stage was the most critical (Rostow, 1971). Rostow described this take-off stage as an "interval when the old blocks and resistances to steady growth were finally overcome" (1971, p. 7) and considered it to be a relatively short period of two to three decades during which economy and society transformed enough to ensure automatic economic growth. During this stage, real output per capita increased and more investment flowed. Not only did take-off presuppose the existence of entrepreneurship, as well as availability of funds and productive use thereof, but it also required that a series of conditions be met (Rostow, 1971).

First, an increase in rate of productive investment of the order of five to ten percent of national income was essential. Second, development of one or more substantial manufacturing sectors had to occur. Third, the first two conditions had to be satisfied in the context of a political, social and institutional framework conducive to judicious exploitation of expansionist impulses in the modern sector (Rostow, 1971). When all these conditions were met, a nation could take advantage of the take-off stage and propel itself into modernity. Development became self-sustained and the nation became modern by proceeding to the stages of "drive to maturity" and "mass-consumption" (Rostow, 1971).

Once development reached an automatic stage, economic growth had the potential of benefiting all citizens. After a certain level of growth had been reached, redistribution of benefits would occur through a process referred to as "trickle-down" (Alladin, 1984; and Allahar, 1995). Via this process, all members of society would reap the benefits of economic growth since the returns would trickle-down from financial and corporate upper-classes, through all strata of society (Bernstein & Boughton, 1994; and Vilas, 1996), and would eventually reach everyone. In the framework of trickle-down, upper-classes benefited first due to their higher level of involvement, investment and risk-taking (Bernstein & Boughton, 1994).

Modernization proponents presented the process as a logical, rational outcome of a desirable, linear and unavoidable evolutionary process (Allahar, 1995; and Larrain, 1994). The results it had historically yielded in the North illustrated the positive impact it could have on the South as a whole. Indeed, as stated by Lerner (1958) in his discussion of modern development of the Middle-East,

> the Western model of modernization exhibits certain components and sequences whose relevance is global. ... The same basic model reappears in virtually all modernizing societies on all continents of the world, regardless of variations in race, colour, creed. ... Indeed, the lesson is that [Middle Eastern] modernizers will do well to study the historical sequence of Western growth. (p. 46)

According to advocates, modernization ranked high in social, philosophical and economic evolution (Allahar, 1995) and was seen as yet another inescapable step in the linear progress of humanity -- like the Age of Exploration, Renaissance, Reformation, and Industrial Revolution (Lerner, 1958).

Education as Human Capital

In light of the above, it is clear that modernization theory borrowed and integrated significant aspects of classical thoughts and development economics. From classical political economy, it borrowed the notion of increased productivity, specialization, importance of market and trade. From classical sociology, it borrowed an understanding of social, political and cultural factors influencing the economic sphere and a better perception of the role played by employment and social welfare in growth. These various discourses eventually became the basis of modernization theory. From development economics, modernization acquired a grounded perspective on state-market relations, role of the state in growth and development and an understanding of the significance of long-term economic strategies. Central to educational discourse was the economic function of human capital in development.

Without a qualified workforce, nations of the South could not become modern, develop and achieve economic growth (Harbison & Myers, 1964; and Harbison, 1973). Modernization proponents also believed that these nations could not promote consumption, capital accumulation and wider participation. They proposed education as a vehicle to foster these goals. As pointed out by Torres (1990) in the discussion of modernization and modern education,

> the role of education is primarily the development of human resources and the training of professionals and technicians deemed necessary for economic development. It stresses the influence education can have in the promotion of technical change through the production and diffusion of innovations. In addition, the importance of education is said to be the generation within social classes of new patterns of consumption, new patterns of entrepreneurial activity, a strong propensity to save money, the adaptation to economic change, and the promotion of the active participation of all social sectors in the developmental task. (p. 36)

In the context of modernization, education's roles could be categorized as: increasing national productivity through creation of appropriate human capital (Harbison, 1973; and Harbison & Myers, 1964); fostering ideological alignment; helping bring about cultural modifications; and helping ensure social pacification (Chomsky, 1989; and Illich, 1973).

The human capital role of modern education was an instrumental one (Harbison, 1973; Harbison & Myers, 1964; and Schultz, 1963, 1981, and 1989). Education often took the aspect of *training* designed to increase the level of national productivity. Training had, indeed, long been associated with economic development and modernity (Schultz, 1963, 1981, and 1989) and, as mentioned by Frederick Harbison (1973), leading proponent of the human capital theory:

> human resources constituted the ultimate basis for wealth of nations. Capital and natural resources were passive factors of production; human beings were the active agents who accumulate capital, exploited natural resources, built social, economic and political organizations, and carried forward national development. Clearly, a country which was unable to develop the skills and knowledge of its people and to utilize them effectively in the national economy would be unable to develop anything else. (p. 3)

From the ideological perspective, education performed well in its role as socializer. In this capacity, modernization-driven education served two broad functions: to foster a given work ethic (Allahar, 1995), and to promote capitalism in the classroom. Essentially, the process focused on instilling in students the so-called Protestant Ethic, with its emphasis on working-to-perfection, for the love of work and, presumably, salvation or a *just* reward (Allahar, 1995; Stammer, 1972; and Tawney, 1987). Associated with this Ethic, were the ancillary concepts of achievement, motivation, progress-orientation and capital accumulation (Lipset, 1967; and McClelland, 1967, 1969, and 1970). In parallel with this specific function, modern education also promoted capitalism among students. Here, capital accumulation was presented as the only rational choice (Biasutto, 1984) and promotion of capitalism effected as much by emphasizing the positive aspects of the system as by not addressing possible alternatives (La Belle, 1975; and Torres, 1983).

Understandably, cultural changes accompanied and reinforced ideological modification (Allahar, 1995) -- education assisting in dismantling the traditional, and in ushering-in the modern (Baez, 1988). Tradition was dismantled by raising student expectations and level of perceived needs, as well as by changing their orientation and world view (Allahar, 1995).

Educational Changes in Canada

Although Canada had progressively recognized the importance of technical / vocational education over time, especially in the wake of the two World Wars (Bryce, 1970). As mentioned by Skolnik (1997),

> ... the immediate aftermath of World War II was an important watershed in the evolution of Canadian higher education. The precise dates varied, but commencing anywhere from the 50s to the early 60s, and lasting as late as the early 70s was a period of identification and elaboration of provincial needs, innovation and expansion, and the establishment of what might be described as provincial systems of postsecondary education (p. 329).

Until then, Canadian education had been "overly oriented to the academic" and it became official perception that "a complete revamping of the provincial systems would be necessary to instill the intent and the capability to meet national needs for skilled, non-professional manpower" (Bryce, 1970, pp. 336-337). Canada realized that the practice of importing qualified technicians and craftsmen from Europe could no longer satisfy its needs, for "immigration (which had tended to mask the inadequacy of technical and vocational training facilities in Canada) slackened, and exposed the gap between need for skilled manpower and domestic capacity to meet that need" (Bryce 1970, pp. 343-344). It was argued that, to become better industrialized and competitive, Canada would have to rely on a more technically qualified indigenous workforce (Bryce, 1970). The country, therefore, now faced the challenge of preparing its own workforce at home. In addition, Soviet achievements in space exploration, and the launch of Sputnik in 1958 created a technological malaise (Grywalski, 1973) propitious to the rapid introduction of technical / technological forms of education in the West in general, and Canada in particular. Lack of a qualified indigenous technical workforce and the perceived technological lag the West experienced in comparison to the Eastern Block eventually led to drafting the Technical and Vocational Training Assistance Act of 1961-1967.

The Act facilitated the creation of infrastructure and technical / vocational programs from coast-to-coast (TVTAA, 1961), and ushered-in an era of unprecedented expansion and appreciation of non-classical education in Canada. Although a discussion of the Technical and Vocational Training Assistance Act of 1961-1967 is beyond the scope of this study, it must be mentioned that when legal provisions of the Act eventually ceased, technical / vocational education was no longer *parent pauvre* of the Canadian educational establishment. Politicians and educators saw the Act as a document which was "most important in developing acceptance throughout Canada of vocational and technical training as an integral part of what may rightfully be regarded as 'education'" (Bryce 1970, p. 327). The importance placed at the time by Canada on technical / vocational education was in no small part influenced by modernization and human capital, theories presenting productive education as an indispensable ingredient of progress, industrialization, modernity and development (Harbison,1973; and Schultz, 1963, 1981, and 1989).

In addition, civil rights awareness in the 1960's brought about recognition that education should become available to individuals who had missed exposure to it earlier in life, rather than solely to those who followed a regular chronological progression through schooling (Ryan, 1974). This recognition, congruent with optimization of national human capital and actualization of individual potentials (Harbison, 1973; and Schultz, 1963, 1981, and 1989), also contributed to expansion of educational alternatives, notably in the vocational sector and adult education, via creation of additional community colleges (Ryan, 1974). Dennison & Gallagher (1986) shed additional light on this development:

> the decade of the 1960's was truly a "golden age" for public education in Canada. It was a period when public demand for more advanced education and the financial capability of governments in Canada to respond to these demands coincided in dramatic fashion. The result was educational activity at all government levels, and the legacy was an educational structure which introduced new concepts of accessibility to higher or postsecondary education, new curriculum design, and new kinds of educational institutions (p. 11).

By the late 1960's, due to economic, political and social reasons, Canada boasted a large number of technical schools, colleges, institutes of technology and CÉGEPs, and placed considerable value on technical / vocational education (ACCC, 1995; and Bryce, 1970). The importance, quality and stature of technical/vocational education in Canada placed the country in a propitious position to promote similar forms of education abroad (Government of Canada, 1995).

Canada in the World

The 1960's, when CIDA was created as a governmental agency to handle Canadian assistance and international education emerged, were representative of the Cold War era. East and West vied to penetrate newly independent nations and bring them into their respective sphere of influence. Many developing nations, conscious of this fact, made considerable efforts to avoid aligning with major ideological blocks (Chisiza, 1961). To such nations, Canada did not present the same dangers. Canada was a country in transition -- at the mid-point, historically, between being a British dominion and achieving the status of industrialized, advanced nation. Sharing of a common British and French colonial past, and Canada's less aggressive ideological alignment proved attractive to many developing countries (Simpson & Sissons, 1989). Canada was a safe and viable alternative to an overt ideological commitment to the U.S.A., its "history as a non-colonizing power, champion of constructive multilateralism and effective international mediator, underpinned an important and distinctive role among nations as they sought to build a new and better order" (Government of Canada 1995, p. I).

Although not a major power in the strategic and economic sense of the word, Canada was nevertheless willing to exercise international influence via its good image and reputation, expertise and aptitude, and political commitment (Government of Canada, 1986). Canadian neutrality, capability and willingness to act, was also accompanied by the humanitarian fact that

> ... all Canadian governments have been concerned to promote the economic and social development of the poorest countries in the World. Over the years various reasons have been offered for this activity, but essentially it comes down to this: it is right and it is in Canada's self-interest that all peoples should enjoy well-being and a decent standard of living. (Government of Canada 1986, p. 83)

Concerns for the well-being of others has not diminished over time and, "in travelling across the country [it can be] discovered that the desire of Canadians to help others through development cooperation seems stronger and more widespread today than it has ever been in the country's history" (Government of Canada 1986, p. 89).

Modernization, Human Capital and Canadian Assistance

Modernization and human capital theory influenced Canadian international aid, and specifically international education. International education helped nations of the South make the transition from traditional to modern and from rural to urban, following a universally applicable and unescapable evolutionary pattern (Allahar, 1995; Larrain, 1994; and Lerner, 1958). The need of the South could be met and its lot improved by adopting attitudes from the North (Canada). This improvement occurred because internal deficiencies of the South (Lipset, 1967 and 1986; McClelland, 1967, 1969, and 1970; and Parsons, 1977) could in part be rectified by applying Canadian remedies. Canada assisted in transforming developing nations' institutions into institutions similar to those found at home; this would be particularly noticeable insofar as educational establishments and systems are concerned. Education provided by Canada to foreign clients was intended to be meritocratic, focussed on academic competition and achievement (McClelland, 1967, 1969, and 1970), and aimed at promoting a specific work ethic congruent with capitalism

(McClelland, 1969; Oakley, 1994; Parsons, 1977; and Todaro, 1984). Meritocratic education would be used to legitimize societal hierarchy based on varying degrees of functional specialization (Allahar, 1995; and Parsons, 1977). Attitudinal changes induced by the promoted work ethic would foster money saving, capital accumulation, entrepreneurship, and economic development (Torres, 1990).

Over time, Canadian assistance stressed the technology of the moment. Early on, technological orientation was centred on resources and their exploitation, then on various forms of industrialization. Finally, it focused on communication and information processing technologies as well as on the service sector (Rubenson, 1992).

Technology Transfer

An overview of international education would not be complete without mentioning the relationship existing between international education and technology transfer. Technology transfer is a corollary to many educational activities and, often, international education contracts include technology transfer clauses (Cortes & Bocock, 1984). Education either drives the transfer of technology supporting it, or acquisition of new technologies via transfer presents new educational needs that cannot be satisfied with local resources (Dietz & James, 1990).

Problems with Modernization

The Theory Itself

Within the first decade of modernization, doubts started to emerge concerning its suitability (Larrain, 1994). As explained by Leys (1996), critics of modernization saw

> metropolitan policy as maleficent, not beneficent; inflows of foreign investment were seen as giving rise to much greater interest and profit outflows; "modernizing elites" were really compradores, or lumpen-bourgeoisie, serving their own and foreign interests, not those of the people; world trade perpetuated structures of underdevelopment, rather than acting as a solvent of them. Capitalist development offered nothing to the periphery; the solution laid in reducing links to the metropoles and bringing about "autocentric" national economic growth (p. 12)

The linear structure of a modernization process based on retracing exactly the steps followed by the North when it developed seemed to be highly questionable. Contextual and epochal differences characterizing Northern and Southern development simply appeared too pronounced to fully support the linearity hypothesis (Hurabielle, 1995).

Aside from presenting modernization as linear, its advocates also depicted the process as being near-unavoidable (Lerner, 1958). That too, seemed to be based on myths rather than on well-substantiated facts (Chilcote, 1984; Larrain, 1994). After years of tinkering with modernization the state of the South was still as dismal as when theoreticians first advanced the paradigm (Cassen & Associates, 1986).

At best, the North could only recommend a developmental paradigm that worked well for it in the past (Seers, 1980). At worse, the North could deliberately recommend strategies that maintained or increased its economic strength while undermining, foiling, or postponing development in the South (Adams & Salomon, 1985; and Khasbulatov, 1987). In any case, it was highly unrealistic to expect cross-contextual and cross-historical suitability of linear development models. Several factors further impeded the use of Northern developmental experience as a valid model for the South. First, the North had access to ample resources from the four corners of the globe to fuel its industrialization (resources frequently obtained via colonization); this avenue was certainly not available to the South (Galeano, 1973).

Second, even though development and capitalist expansion in the North took full advantage of the industrial and technological capabilities of the time, these processes occurred at a noticeably slower pace than that at which they were expected to take place in the South (Baechler, 1976; Martin, 1983; Rosenberg & Birdzell, 1986).

Third, according to most economists, a certain level of population was desirable if not indispensable for development to occur (Baechler, 1976; Martin, 1983; Rosenberg & Birdzell, 1986). However, the developing North never had to contend with population levels found in the South (Cole, 1987; and Harrison, 1990). Demographically, the situation in the South was different from that encountered by the North in the past.

Fourth, the restrictive international economic order (George, 1989) in the framework of which the South was forced to trade while attempting to develop made matters worse. Strangled by Northern greed and burdened by interests and principals of foreign debts (Adams, 1991), Southern governments -- regardless of their political capacity or inherent proclivity -- were unable to allocate sufficient resources to areas where they would most benefit their nations and their people. In terms of economic order, the development of the North was considerably different, for its nations had not been subjected to comparable constraints.

Fifth, the existence of successful examples of development in the North influenced the South. When countries of the North developed, they did not have concrete examples of how things were supposed to be in advanced industrialized countries. The North, likely, did not have a precise idea of what development would really turn out to be. Similarly, its populations did not entertain preconceived ideas of lifestyle changes or aspirations far removed from their daily realities. In other words, development in the North just happened to become what it was. In the South, thanks to the media, the population was fully aware of the nature of modern life in the North (Fajnzylber, 1990). Aspirations generated by this awareness induced social frustration among the masses (Baez, 1988). Lured by the promise of a new, and presumably better lifestyle, local populations were distracted from the very task of indigenous development (Kay, 1989).

Modernization, furthermore, was not an economical course to follow. The sort of development and growth it advocated came with considerable costs (Harrison, 1990). These costs were financial, social and ecological (Bello & Rosenfeld, 1990). Financial costs included loans repayment (interest and principal); meeting the obligations of a modernizing country (Rich, 1993), often being diverted to support development funds which were direly required in other areas of national life; and continuing to allocate funds to run projects once external support has been withdrawn (Adams, 1991; George, 1989). The latter almost invariably doomed Southern modernization to failure once *experts-from-afar* had retired to the metropoles (Adams & Solomon, 1985).

Social costs of modernization were immense (George, 1976, 1989, and 1992). Despite denouncing some social ill-effects of modernization, the bulk of these costs remained unknown, deliberately hidden, or totally outside official development discourse and consideration (George & Sabelli, 1994). Attempts at economic growth along modernization lines were invariably accompanied by considerable social upheaval (Adams & Solomon, 1985; Harrison, 1990). Social costs related to ecological destruction impacting on populations (Bello, Kinley, & Elinson, 1982); disturbance to traditional roles and sustenance patterns (Bennet, 1987; Crow, 1995; Woodhouse, 1995), devaluation of ancestral systems of knowledge (Diaz, 1978; Escobar, 1970), law and religion (Taussig, 1991); as well as the emergence of widespread structural violence (Zielinski, 1996).

Even in nations displayed as models of modern development, such as Thailand, Indonesia, Taiwan, Singapore, the Philippines and South Korea, the benefits of modernization-inspired development and growth were far from being completely satisfactory (Bello & Rosenfeld, 1990). Mega projects, transnational penetration, population-displacement, abusive labour practices, occupational gender discrimination, structural violence and sexual exploitation -- to name just a few -- were very much part of daily realities of those caught between tradition and modern economic growth (Bello & Rosenfeld, 1990; Chant & McIlwain, 1995; Lee-Wright, 1990). After decades of social sacrifice, more successful Asian economies faced waves of discontent, political fragility, and diminishing returns on investments (Bello & Rosenfeld, 1990).

Modernization and Education

Under modernization, education's roles could be subsumed to four broad categories. First, it assisted in increasing national levels of productivity through the creation of appropriate human capital (Harbison, 1973; Harbison & Myers, 1964). Second, it fostered ideological alignment. Third, education was an ideal tool to bring about cultural modifications (Carnoy, 1974). And, finally, education -- especially of the sort modernization proposes for the masses -- ensured more thorough social pacification (Chomsky, 1989; Illich, 1973).

The human capital role of modern education was a very instrumental one (Harbison, 1973; Harbison & Myers, 1964; Schultz, 1963, 1981, and 1989). In this context, education often took the aspect of mere *training*, training proposed with the sole purpose of increasing the level of productivity of the capitalist machine, thereby maximizing profits (Baez, 1988). As aptly noted by Merani (1983),

> instead of being organized to function as a vehicle of social promotion, education is differentiated in a manner that contributes to the crystallisation of social classes and conditions individuals to the necessities and characteristics of the class to which they have belonged historically. Mass education is designed so that the knowledge imparted never exceeds what immediate job requirements (p. 112)

From the ideological perspective, education performed well in its role of socializer. In this capacity, modernization-driven education served two broad functions: to promote a given work ethic, and to sell capitalism in the classroom. Essentially, the process focused on instilling in students the so-called Protestant Ethic. Associated with this Ethic, were ancillary concepts of achievement, motivation, progress, etc. In parallel with this specific function, education also promoted capitalism among students. This promotion relied on justifying, extolling and presenting capital accumulation as the only rational choice (Biasutto, 1984). Selling was performed as much by emphasizing the many blessings of the capitalist system, as by deliberately refraining from addressing any possible alternative (La Belle, 1975; Torres, 1983). Outside the capitalist system no valid discourse was deemed to exist.

Understandably, ideological modifications were accompanied, as well as reinforced by cultural changes (Baez, 1988). Modern education promoted westernization and consumerism among populations of the South (Altbach, 1971). As an outcome, geographical mobility became a normal occurrence, and family and social ties were perceived obstacles to becoming modern. These changes altered profoundly the fabric of Southern societies onto which modern education was forced.

Elite education had long been present in the South. First, it was classical education catering to the needs of the children of expatriates from the metropole, later it became a blend of modern/western education consumed out of country by members of the elites (Hurabielle, 1995). In parallel with this elite education, the masses had always expressed their own educational demands. These demands rested on the fact that education was perceived to be one of the few available avenues of social mobility.

Under modernization, mass education -- in the form of technical and vocational training -- was made available to non-elite consumers (Corvalán-Vasquez, 1977; Torres, 1990). Such being the case, how could the masses still claim their plight for education had not been answered? The placebo-like answer provided by vocational / technical education contributed substantially to defusing potential social unrest based on unjust distribution of educational opportunities (Torres, 1983).

New Right Ideology and Neo-Liberal Thought

Of importance in recent years, is the influence of New Right ideology. New Right ideology comprises two schools of thought: one referred to as neo-conservative, the other as neo-liberal. The neo-conservative school advocates a return to social, religious and political norms of yesteryears. As such, this school promotes the benefits of class differences, religious fundamentalism and reversal of social and political advances achieved by minorities and non-elite groups since World War II (Marchak, 1993). Although the neo-conservative school has exercised considerable influence at the elementary and secondary school level (Calvert, 1993) and continues to do so, it did not impact as significantly on the postsecondary sector and international education.

The second school of thought falling under the New Right ideological umbrella is neo-liberalism. Contrary to neo-conservatism, neo-liberalism has impacted Canadian postsecondary and international education (Calvert 1993; and Marchak, 1993). It also impacted on all aspects of the life of Canadian citizens. As mentioned by Brodie (1996),

> after enduring the severest recession since the 1930s, a twenty-year decline in real incomes, and a decade of Tory cuts to the postwar social welfare system, Minister of Finance Paul Martin told Canadians that they had it "too easy for too long" (p. 9).

Much like modernization, neo-liberalism is rooted in classical political economy. It is, however, much more than an economic theory. It is, indeed, also a political and social ideology (Marchak, 1993). Although its economic aspect had long been proposed for its merits, its social and political dimensions gained momentum in the U.S. and the UK under the Reagan and Thatcher administrations -- periods well-known for their right-wing tendencies (Bisley, 1986; and Maier, 1987). For most people, neo-liberalism has been a nameless occurrence, an economic, social and political model presumed to evolve from an economic system seeking natural equilibrium (Besley, 1986; and Levitas, 1982).

The economic dimension of neo-liberalism rests on minimalist governments; disinvestment of public sectors and associated privatization of services; deregulation of trade; deregulation of minimum wages; rationalization of society based on market models; and expansion of transborder capitalism and entrepreneurship (Veljanowski, 1987). Accompanying this economic dimension are social and political dimensions resting on a functionalist view of non-egalitarian social arrangements (Boyer & Drach , 1995; and Laycock, 1994) and a belief that too much democracy is detrimental to societal progress (Manning, 1992). As noted by Marchak (1993), it also "became acceptable to blame the poor and the unemployed for their poverty and lack of employment, and politicians began to question publicly the value of democracy" (p. xi).

Also fundamental to neo-liberal ideology is the notion that, although governments should be minimalist, they should be authoritarian enough to free entrepreneurs and control working classes (Veljanowski, 1987). Neo-liberal ideology promotes profit-maximization, free capital movement across border, global division of labour, and curbing of social initiatives likely to limit gains and/or privatization (Brodie, 1996; and Marchak, 1993). It also sets the tone for reshaping social contracts outside the realm of negotiations. By reducing social and political issues to their most elementary economic dimensions, neo-liberalism removes their discussion from the public sphere and the reach of bargaining or electoral processes -- it depoliticizes the political (Magnussen & Walker, 1988). Economic reductionism implies a return to eighteenth century classical political economy.

Although it is true that, outside the company of theoreticians, neo-liberal thought has rarely been identified and referred to by that name, it was far from being the spontaneous outcome of an economic system in search of balance. It was, indeed carefully designed and promoted by powerful groups with strong vested interests (Marchak, 1993). First devised by right-wing ideologues who achieved limited prominence in the 1940s and 1950s -- such as Gilder, Hayek and Friedman, neo-liberalism was promoted from relative obscurity to global ideology by corporate-sponsored think-tanks (Marchak, 1993; Novak, 1980; and Sklar, 1980). Financed by the corporate sector, these think-tanks enlisted the assistance and contribution of sympathetic supporters and coopted intellectuals who created the body of research and literature necessary to disseminate the ideology (Marchak, 1993; and Sklar, 1980). Furthermore, supranational organizations and commissions, such as the Trilateral Commission, were created to act in an advisory capacity to governments -- thereby implementing and reinforcing the ideology at the state level. As noted by Marchak (1993),

> seed money for the Trilateral Commission was provided initially by the David Rockefeller, and later by the Kettering Foundation, the Ford Foundation, and several similar groups. Leading corporate executives contributed personally, and General Motors, Sears Roebuck, Caterpillar Tractor, John Deere, Exxon, Texas Instruments, Coca-Cola, Time, CBS, the Wells Fargo Bank, Honeywell, Cargill, Kaiser Resources, Bechtel, and Weyerhauser subscribed funds. [Similarly, in Canada] the Fraser Institute was funded by Eaton's, Molson's, Canadian Pacific, Domtar, BC Packers, Cadillac Fairview, Daon, IBM, Imperial Oil, Placer Development, Imasco, the Canadian banks, Noranda, Pemberton Securities, Genstar, Abitibi-Price, BC Telephone, and other forestry, mining, oil, newspaper and telecommunications sectors. (p. 112)

Neo-liberal inroads were modest at first, for many aspects of the ideology would have been hard to sell in the Cold War climate, when socialism presented a viable alternative (Marchak, 1993). In the post-Perestroika context, however, the neo-liberal agenda could be implemented not only in its economic, but also social and political dimensions.

International implications of neo-liberalism are legion. Neo-liberalism, as was mentioned above, advocates profit-maximization, rationalization, limitation of social and welfare services, liberalization of trade, and the presence of governments authoritarian enough to create and maintain necessary conditions for the scenario to unfold. As such, it is natural for neo-liberalism to move business to areas of depressed wages and oppressive working conditions (Keller, 1983), to refine global division of labour (Marchak, 1993), to seek free-trade agreements (Leipitz, 1986), and to support authoritarian governments (Marchak, 1993). These measures are invariably implemented in the framework of economic globalization.

Neo-liberal thought is particularly relevant to current and future international education, as its view of resources allocation and maximization of profits fits well within the world division of labour facilitated by practical education as provided by Canadian colleges and postsecondary technical institutions. However, it should be remembered that, as mentioned by Galeano, "the division of labour among nations is that some specialize in winning and others in losing" (1973, p. 11).

Neo-liberalism focuses on short-term economic equilibrium rather than long-term strategies. It stresses maximizing resource allocation and profits, and advocates a return to market forces only, along with de-emphasis of the social and protective role of the state. By returning to market economics, neo-liberalism also returns to an era where social, political and cultural concerns were absent (Martinussen, 1997). Neo-liberalism is fast becoming the dominant economic paradigm in Canada (Martinussen, 1997).

Despite the resurgence of neo-classical ideas, that is neo-liberal economic focus devoid of social concerns, ties exist between modernization, human capital development and Canadian assistance and these ties have endured over time and continue today. Canadian international education has been influenced by modernization and human capital and is intimately related to the latter. Human capital has been re-emphasized by the Canadian Labour Market and Productivity Centre which, in its 1993 report stressed

> that the most critical national asset, and the only one that remains rooted within a nation's borders, is its people, [and] that the surest avenue to economic success in the age of technology is the innovative capacity that comes with a trained, highly-skilled workforce (p. 2)

Conceptual Framework

The conceptual framework (Figure 2.1) was elaborated after a complete review of the relevant literature and served as guide for the study. It became clear, early in the study, that international education could not be understood without considering government ideology, institutional perspective and the values and beliefs of staff involved in international activities.

In the 1960's governmental ideology -- manifested via agencies and departments --

was steeped in modernization and human capital theories. Since then, however, a steady shift toward a business model occurred. This shift, which accelerated since the late 1980's, was congruent with neo-liberal thoughts. Although the study investigated governmental ideology via documentary research, no source seemed to address institutional perspective and international education faculty values and beliefs. The study was designed to gain insight in both, with the intention of completing the conceptual framework presented in Figure 2.1. Question marks appearing in the conceptual framework indicate areas of specific research interest.

Summary

This chapter examined at theories and issues which have influenced Canadian international education. Classical thoughts, development economics, modernization, human capital, neo-liberal thoughts and technology transfer were explored for relevancy. Modernization and human capital had the greatest impact on early Canadian international education because they were the dominant theoretical views at the time of its emergence.

Both modernization and human capital theories found their origins in classical political economy and classical sociology. Classical political economy presented market dynamics as a source of economic growth, and perceived growth to be dependent on social division of labour, organization of production, accumulation of capital, investment of profits, use of technical innovation and enhancement of international trade. Classical sociology considered that Calvinism influenced early European capitalism, and attracted attention to the influence motivation and rationality have on individual and national development. Classical sociologists such as Durkheim and Weber were followed by more recent sociologists who constructed the foundation of modernization sociology. These were Parsons -- known for his functionalist analyses of modern and traditional societies, Lerner -- who proposed the theory of social antecedents for development, and Rostow who developed the stage theory of modernization. Their ideas were widely integrated in leading developmental paradigm since the 1950's.

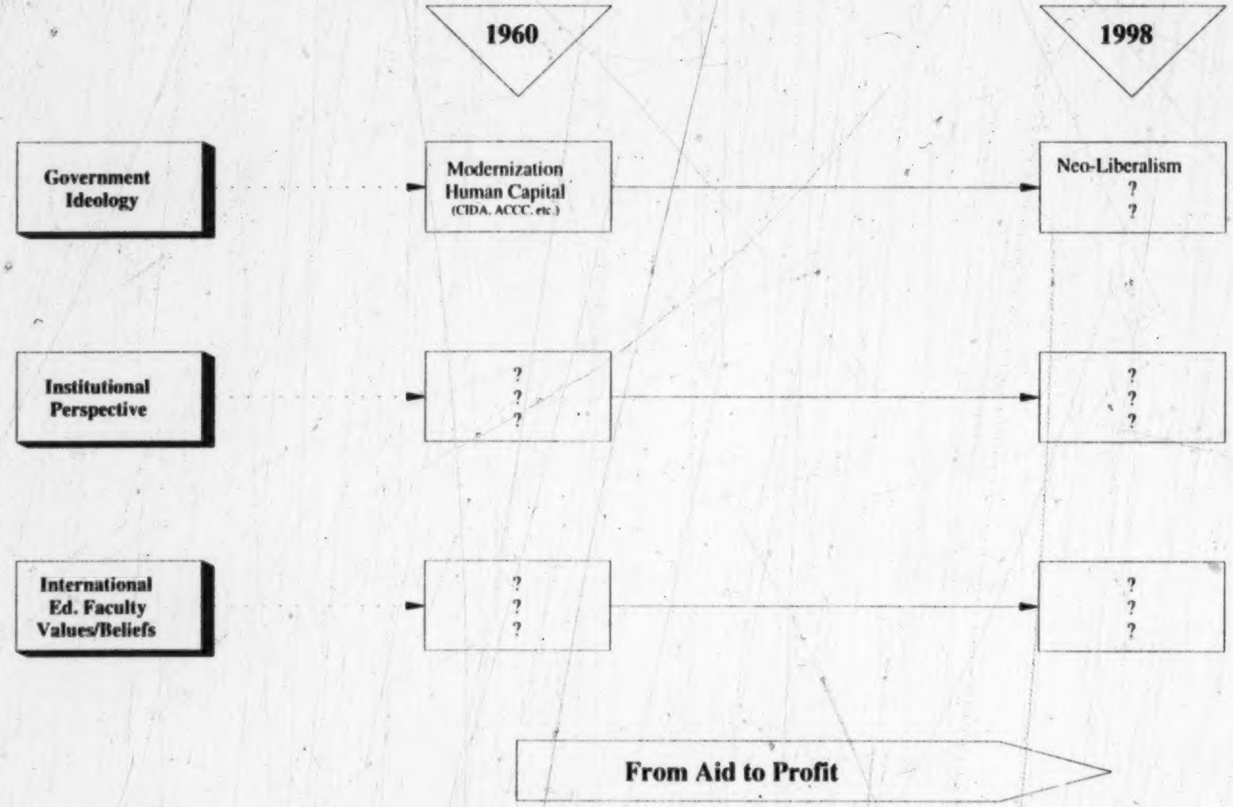

Figure 2.1: Conceptual Framework Guiding the Study

The contribution brought by classical and modernization sociologists to development was a better understanding of the role played by social welfare in growth. Consideration of social welfare was not present in classical political economy since it focused on economic aspects only. In modernization, economic growth became linked to the achievement of a certain level of social welfare related to employment. In modernization, educational discourse became linked to the economic function of human capital in development.

The 1960's witnessed educational changes in Canada. These changes consisted in giving practical education (technical/vocational) more prominence in the educational sphere. In Canada, too, increased interest in technical education was closely linked to modernization and human capital theories. Technical/vocational education achievements in Canada were not unnoticed in the South. Pressed to modernize, developing nations were quick to request Canadian assistance and the implementation of Canadian educational remedies to meet their local training needs.

Since the 1990s, New-Right ideology of the neo-liberal variety exercised considerable influence on Canada and the world; it also impacted on Canadian education and on the type of education provided by the country to the South. To many, neo-liberalism brought different realities. These realities are invariably presented as emerging spontaneously from economic conditions, they are, however, far from spontaneous.

Indeed, the spread of neo-liberal ideology has been financed and organized by the corporate sector who created think-tanks to disseminate the ideology and spin the myth of its many benefits. The same corporate interests have created supranational organizations and commissions to directly influence governments in the North and South, thereby making the ideology of a small group public ideology. Most noticeable in neo-liberal strategies, are disinvestment of the public sector, privatization, reduction in social programs, move of business to areas of depressed wages and questionable working conditions, refinement of the global division of labour, pursuit of free-trade agreements permitting increased capital accumulation by trans-border capitalists, and support of authoritarian governments. By returning to market economics, neo-liberalism also returns to a pre-modernization era where social, political and cultural concerns were absent. Neo-liberal thought is particularly relevant to current and future international education, as its view of resources allocation and maximization of profits fits well within the world division of labour. Under this ideology, practical workforce training is purely instrumental and consists of simply imparting skills required by assembly lines, and to do so as quickly, economically and profitably as possible. Neo-liberalism believes in the role of human capital, but does so without the limited social concerns that were present in modernization.

CHAPTER III -- METHODOLOGY

Introduction

This study rests primarily on two distinct but complementary research strategies aimed at answering the specific research questions listed in Chapter I and completing / revising the conceptual frame work presented in Figure 2.1. First, interviews were conducted to reinforce initial directions of inquiry which were products of the literature review, researcher's international experience and, to a somewhat lesser extent, earlier graduate studies. This combination of international experience and education led to the perception of the need for a clearer understanding of the nature of international education practitioners; origins of international education activities; mandates, financing and staffing of departments; marketing of international services; regional, disciplinary and programmatic focus; clientele; and evaluation and assessment of activities. Second, a major survey of Canadian public colleges and postsecondary technical/vocational institutions provided additional information at institutional, local, regional and national level. The interviews were instrumental in providing direction for the survey.

Interviews

Five interviews were completed during the early stages of the research. Their purpose was to provide a deeper understanding of key aspects of international education in Canada. Interviewing practitioners, some of whom had been involved in international education since the late 1950's, assisted in focussing on areas of significance, understanding history of the field, and identifying social, political, cultural and economic underpinnings of Canada's international undertakings.

Thematic Analysis

Mechanics of interviews

Interviews were conducted in accordance with semi-structured interview practices with special considerations given to informed consent, confidentiality and provision to opt out (Guba & Lincoln, 1985). Interviews took place at locations selected by interviewees -- their residences, offices or other suitable locales. All interviews were taped and subsequently transcribed, which allowed the researcher to concentrate on interview dynamics rather than being distracted by note-taking (Guenzel, Berckman & Cannell, 1983). For the reader's benefit, a copy of the interview schedule has been placed in Appendix #1. Although questions were adhered-to, interviews were conducted in a flexible enough manner to permit elaboration, digression and amplification of answers by respondents.

The final interview instrument comprised one hundred and eleven questions divided into fifteen categories: (1) purpose of interview; (2) source/respondent identification (description); (3) origins of international education activities; (4) mandates of institution and department; (5) departmental support; (6) department staffing; (7) field staffing; (8) marketing of services; (9) regional focus; (10) programmatic focus; (11) volume of work handled by department; (12) characteristics of clients; (13) work evaluation and assessment; (14) recommendations; and (15) wrap up of interview. Response time had been estimated to be two hours (through a series of five timed mini-pilots conducted on academics), although no pressure was placed on respondents to answer questions within that time limit. The important issue was to obtain as rich and complete information as possible, even if it took interviewees more than two hours to respond. The shortest interview lasted almost two hours, and the longest one slightly over three. Time differences were largely attributable to differences in exhaustiveness and thoroughness of answer, level of experience, length of service, need for warm up, ease of recollection, and conversational style exhibited by various respondents.

Development of the final interview schedule included three levels of testing. First, almost any question related to international education at the institution with which respondents were affiliated had been included. The exercise yielded three hundred and two questions. This broad strategy ensured that the risk of overlooking a significant aspect of international education would be small. Second, a careful edit of the lengthy list of initial questions took place. This edit eliminated unnecessary overlap and redundancy, while reducing the total number of questions. The edit resulted in an instrument easier to read and answer, and containing a total of one hundred and forty-six questions. Third, the second generation schedule was cleaned up by eliminating questions considered peripheral, superfluous or too vague. From this third step emerged one hundred and eleven questions.

The third version of the instrument was then reviewed by four academics: two belonging to the research committee, the others non-affiliated with the study. The size of the instrument was maintained, but significant reordering and rewriting of questions occurred with the purpose of facilitating respondent answer. At this stage the final version of the instrument was subjected to a final pilot on five academics working at a postsecondary technical institution.

A clerk who did not know the respondents transcribed the interview tapes, and all references to respondent identification were removed from working documents (Guba & Lincoln, 1985). At this stage respondents were numbered 1 through 5, a numbering system used to identify interviews and respondents throughout the study.

Methodology of thematic analysis

The emergent / evolutionary open model described by L' Ecuyer (1988) guided interview analysis. This model features progressive elaboration of a data-analysis matrix based on emergence of themes during the review of sources / data. Data review (in this case transcripts) started with as few preconceived ideas as possible (L'Ecuyer, 1988); these were based on literature reviews and limited to what was absolutely necessary to identify broad areas of investigation. The review process continued, and identification of recurrent ideas took place. These ideas were reinforced as the research progressed and became themes (L'Ecuyer, 1988). One hundred and twenty-eight themes emerged, leading to construction of the large matrix presented in Appendix #2.

Once constructed, the matrix facilitated comparison of themes across interviews. In the analysis, each individual theme was carefully scrutinized for appearance, absence, usage, redundancy and meaning which provided insights into views of aid, education, and development held by respondents.

The identification, confirmation and selection of themes for matrix construction followed criteria identified by L' Ecuyer (1988). First, they answered specific questions asked. Second, they existed in a limited and still manageable number. Third, they were pertinent to the research. And, last, they were productive, presenting a reasonable probability of generating further questions.

The interview section is classified as documentary research based on transcripts/documents (Lang & Heiss, 1984), covers a limited period of contemporary time (Leedy, 1993), and excludes true historical remains. These characteristics distinguish the study from a purely historical one (Erickson, 1985).

Rigor and Associated Concerns

Being qualitative in nature, the interview section of this study faced some of the rigor dilemmas commonly associated with non-quantitative studies (Guba & Lincoln, 1982). Issues of applicability, replicability, auditability, credibility, and other possible pitfalls of qualitative research were the object of particular attention (Guba & Lincoln, 1985). Although all five interviews focussed on representatives of the same institution, the research exhibits an acceptable degree of applicability due to universality of educational and developmental aid provided by Canadian colleges and postsecondary technical/vocational institutions to the South.

Replicability was a consideration at all times (Guba & Lincoln, 1985). Efforts were made to provide as much detail as possible regarding sources, data gathering procedures, questions and analytical framework. It is reasonable to anticipate that another researcher could replicate the present study and obtain similar findings. Aside from the previously mentioned rigor issues, pitfalls commonly encountered in pure historical studies were also recognized and assessed for possible detrimental impact. The concept of historical time (Leedy, 1993), which can strongly influence the post-facto interpretation of facts, occasionally to a point of distorting them, was of no importance as the project dealt near-exclusively with contemporary data (Schafer, 1974). For the same reason, presentism, a tendency to interpret past events in light of more recent concepts (Borg, Gall, & Gall, 1993), could be safely ignored.

Survey of Institutions

In addition to interviews, data was obtained via a comprehensive survey of 123 institutions meeting the operational definition of college and postsecondary technical institution presented in Chapter I. These institutions, located from cost to coast comprised both English and French speaking establishments. All steps of the survey process aimed at ensuring ease of response, accuracy and richness of answers, acceptable response rate, and ease of data coding, analysis and interpretation. Following is a description of steps followed to survey the institutions. A precise chronology of the process is presented in Appendix #3.

Generating Survey Questions

Research objectives guided the construction of survey questions (Alrik & Settle, 1985; and Gray & Guppy, 1994). Additional questions were devised to address issues raised during interviews and were integrated with the initial research questions. The final survey instrument presented in Appendix #4 was the result of seven generations of review, refinement, and rewriting.

Although an initial short survey comprising twenty-five questions addressed the major research questions, it failed to provide an arena for respondents to detail their experience and history, and the growth and development of international education at their institutions. Several rounds of rewriting yielded an instrument including one hundred and fourteen questions. This instrument was subjected to multiple reviews.

Aside from a brief introduction to the survey and a concise set of instructions, the instrument comprised eight sections. Section I assessed relevancy of the survey to institutions. Institutions not involved in international education did not have to proceed any further in their responses. Section II aimed at gaining broad information concerning respondents -- such as title, length of experience, education, field of specialization, and languages spoken. Section III was designed to gain a general idea of the institution, its size, number of students, number of full-time staff employed, and population of the city where located.

Section IV focussed on international department/unit at the surveyed institutions: department staffing; budget; use of overseas consultants; revenue-generation; and administrative placement of the department within the institutional framework. In Section V, respondents were asked: (1) to provide information regarding institutional importance of international education; (2) why the institution participated in it; (3) during which periods activities unfolded, and (4) in which areas of the world; (5) what was the thrust of programs and projects during the indicated periods; (6) what was the nature of the student population; (7) what sorts of credentials students obtained; (8) what was the success rate of international education, and (9) what means of evaluation were used to assess the success of international undertakings.

Section VI dealt with issues deemed important but not naturally fitting elsewhere. These issues included institutional proactivity in international education and marketing strategies relied upon by institutions to market their international services. Section VII aimed at obtaining respondent opinions, perceptions and beliefs concerning international education at their institutions, as well as in general. Section VIII presented respondents with an opportunity to comment on the quality of the survey and to add information considered essential but which would not have been encapsulated by existing questions.

Survey questions were devised in strict accordance with the type of information sought. Consequently, where appropriate for the data needed, questions took the forms of: categorical, Yes/No, numerical, open-ended, or descriptive. Open-ended questions were found more frequently in the latter sections of the survey where opinions, perceptions and beliefs were sought. Other types of questions were present throughout the instrument. Responses to open-ended and descriptive questions were subjected to grouping and, if possible, quantified for statistical analysis. Where grouping could not be effected, responses were treated as documentary sources and subjected to thematic analysis. Quantitative methods (counts, frequency, etc.) were used to handle responses to all quantifiable questions.

Supporting the Survey

In parallel with survey development, a package supporting the survey was also prepared. This package consisted of an announcing letter (Appendix #5), an accompanying letter (Appendix #6), a poster page asking for help (Appendix # 7), and two identical prompters (Appendix #8) mailed at different times (Gray & Guppy, 1994). The announcing letter, sent to all targeted institutions three weeks previous to mailing the actual survey, introduced the researcher, alerted establishments that an international education survey was forthcoming, and informed potential respondents of what the research goals and focus were. To attract the recipient's attention, this letter was produced on University of Alberta letterhead and mailed in a rather visible / unforgettable pink envelope.

The accompanying letter (Appendix #6), mailed with the survey three weeks after the announcing letter, gave respondents the opportunity to opt out of the study, assurances with regards to confidentiality, and reiterated the goal and purpose of the research. This letter, too, was prepared on University of Alberta letterhead, thereby reinforcing departmental support.

Sent with the accompanying letter and the survey instrument was a poster-page enlisting assistance of the addressee. Although the survey was addressed to presidents of the institutions for reasons of protocol and expediency, these individuals may not have been the best potential respondents. In addition, since international education can be found under different forms of organization in Canadian institutions, it was impossible to identify who could be the best respondents. The poster-page (see Appendix #7) asked for presidents to forward the survey to the best possible respondents at their institutions. This poster-page was printed on a selection of red and pink fluorescent paper, resulting in a document not likely to be missed when opening the survey package.

Prompters were also prepared, on similar paper, and sent four and eight weeks after the survey had been mailed to remind institutions which had thus far failed to answer the questionnaire that it was important for them to complete and return it as soon as possible. A sample of this prompter can be located in Appendix 8. Intervals of four weeks between consecutive mailing of prompters were selected on the basis that a four-week period would likely be required for a mailed prompter to reach its destination and for respondents to return the completed survey to the sender. Eventually, the second prompter was sent at the beginning of December 1997 rather than at the end of November; this delay was due to an unexpected strike of Canada Post employees. The researcher deliberately held back the second prompter to avoid potential loss through an unreliable mail service.

Formatting the Questionnaire

With all questions written, and the survey package nearing completion, an introduction to the instrument and instructions to respondents were added (Gray & Guppy, 1994). These additions facilitated the task of answering the survey. Simultaneously, formatting received attention: making the survey compact, easy to read, uncluttered, categorized into rational sections, and as visually attractive as possible.

Methodology Reviews

Survey methodologists reviewed the survey and supporting package throughout the development phase. Their suggestions concentrated on polishing the package, using more concise and precise terminology and expressions in the questionnaire, and attempting to reduce the instrument in overall size. These modifications resulted in a survey and supporting package ready for assessment by individuals external to the research committee.

Timing and Review of Survey Package

The survey and supporting package were sent for review (Gray & Guppy, 1994) to twenty individuals representing a cross-section of possible respondents. All reviewers had a strong research and/or educational background. Six reviewers were professional methodologists associated with different faculties (sciences and humanities) at universities throughout North America, and responsible for research in their daily activities; one was a self-employed statistician/methodologist; three engineers (civil and computing); the Director of Institutional Research for a major postsecondary institution; a professional writer; one involved in medical sciences; the other reviewers were all postsecondary educators familiar with research principles, survey and associated techniques. Their review prompted further modifications to the survey consisting of reducing the total number of questions from one hundred and fourteen to eighty-three, providing more precise operational definitions, consolidating instructions to respondents, and changing approximate responding time from forty-five to thirty minutes.

Preparation of Institutional Database

While external reviewers reviewed survey and supporting package, the researcher also decided which establishments to survey. The final list, presented in Appendix #9, was arrived at by compiling non-university, public sector establishments listed on the ACCC website (http://www.accc.ca/eng/members/intro2.html) and Canadian Colleges and Universities (http://www.oise.on.ca/~mpress/eduweb.html) site. Colleges and postsecondary technical/vocational institutions selected for the database were institutions providing one- or two-year training leading to diplomas or certificates, belonging to the public sector, and having completion of secondary schooling as a prerequisite for enrollment (Canadian Education Statistics Council, 1996; OECD, 1992; and Picot, 1980). As a considerable degree of overlap existed between lists found on the two sites, attention was paid to avoiding redundancy. The resulting database was modified and used to prepare a checklist of institutions to which the survey would be sent, as well as to generate mailing labels. Consulting the individual home page of each institution and, where needed, placing a telephone call directly to the establishments permitted confirmation of addresses and information obtained from websites.

Piloting the Survey

After effecting modifications recommended by the twenty reviewers, the researcher conducted a small pilot see how international education practitioners would react to the final version of the survey (Gray & Guppy, 1994). Objective of this pilot was to test the instrument. To preserve the surveyed population (n=123), participants in the pilot were four retired international education practitioners, instead of institutions which would then have to be eliminated from the list. This strategy had the benefit of providing valuable information about the instrument while preserving the total number of institutions. The survey was further polished in light of the pilot, some questions were added, others deleted, and others refined. This step brought the survey and package to its final version, and the total number of questions to eighty-one.

Translation of Package from English into French

To more appropriately cater to the linguistic diversity found among Canadian colleges and postsecondary technical/vocational institutions, the researcher translated the survey and supporting package into French. Two French-speaking academics -- one French Canadian, one French, as well as two visiting professionals from France checked the initial translation of the survey. Considering the many modifications and pilots the English instrument had already been subjected to, reviews of the French version were limited to syntax, semantics, and cultural particularities.

Launching and Administering the Survey

Although survey preparation had been underway since January, survey launch and administration did not occur until September 1997. This launching time was established so that institutions would have completed the start of the academic year activities and be in a better position to devote time to survey completion. The letter announcing the survey was mailed during the first week of September 1997, and the survey itself during the third week. For confidentiality purpose the researcher rented a post office box and used it as return address for completed surveys. Only the researcher had access to this box (Alrik & Settle, 1985; and Gray & Guppy, 1994).

English and French surveys were printed on pink paper to stand out among other documents on respondent desks. They were mailed along with the covering letter and poster-page referred-to above, and a stamped return envelope addressed to the post office box. An institution, which for confidentiality reasons must remain anonymous, generously absorbed the cost of mailing survey packages. To facilitate non-respondent tracking, each survey had been assigned a sequential serial number and a coding list prepared matching survey-to-institution. Survey respondents were informed of this tracking (Alrik & Settle, 1985; and Gray & Guppy, 1994). Only one copy of this list existed, and access to it was limited to the researcher and data-input clerk (for the sole purpose of being able to track non-respondents). Institutions who had already returned their surveys by the end of October 1997 were deleted from the mailing list, the others were sent the first prompter. At the time of mailing prompter #1 (first week of November

1997), forty-seven percent of targeted institutions had responded.

By mid-November 1997 returned surveys were forwarded to the data-input clerk, along with coding instructions designed to be used with Microsoft Excel and SPSS software (see coding instructions in Appendix #10). In December, prompter #2 was mailed to all institutions who had still failed to return a completed survey.

Coding

The coding format developed allowed for different types of information being submitted (Appendix #10). The format captured all information noted in categorical questions, and comprised four hundred and twenty-two variables listed on seven cards of eighty columns. This format exhibited compatibility with Microsoft Excel and SPSS, statistical software subsequently used for data handling, processing, and analysis. Expert volunteers assisted in coding and data-input.

Comments yielded by open-ended questions were grouped according to similarities/commonalities and, if possible, quantified for data analysis. Others, which could not be grouped and quantified were analysed as documentary data, relying principally on the thematic analysis of documentary sources described in the "Interviews" section. All surveys were scanned for missing sections or notes. Coded data was entered into a computer and initial data listings were edited by computer.

Data analysis

Descriptive statistics and frequencies were determined for each variable. Visual edits were made by examining the range of values and missing values. Evaluation of discrepancies were effected by referral to original forms. To more effectively present survey findings, the researcher decided to produce twenty-eight tables permitting optimum grouping of answers to questions addressing common or similar themes. Consolidation of findings in such tables also facilitated associated discussion.

Ethics Issues

Professionals experienced in ethical reviews were consulted in consideration of ethical issues in the areas of semi-structured interviews and institutional surveys. In both cases, these issues were of limited concern because of the relative ease with which precautions could be taken to protect respondents.

Furthermore, since the research involved human participants -- interviewees and survey respondents -- it underwent the University of Alberta research ethics review. Due to adherence to appropriate research protocol and demonstrated participant protection, formal approval of the research followed without requiring modifications (Appendix #11).

Interviews

The researcher approached respondents to all five semi-structured formally by letter well in advance of conducting the interviews. This letter (see Appendix #12) presented the objectives of the research, articulated procedures followed to ensure respondent anonymity, refrained from enticing responses via financial or other forms of reward, and provided the targeted respondent with a period of two weeks to consider a response before agreeing to partake in the study. All targeted respondents were adult professionals who hold or held executive positions in an academic institution accustomed to practices of scholarly research (Denzin & Lincoln, 1994).

Major measures to ensure confidentiality and anonymity in the context of the semi-structured interviews were: (a) respondents would be identified by number and corresponding institutional title only; (b) institution they are or were affiliated with was simply described as "a representative postsecondary technical institution in Western Canada". Considering the above-described provisions and guarantees, participation in the proposed research indicated respondent consent.

Survey

Ethics issues pertaining to the survey of institutions could be articulated at three different levels: respondent, institution and student population. Each level presented its own set of problems and solutions.

Respondents:

The issue was to ensure anonymity/confidentiality of a specific respondent in a given institution (Gray & Guppy, 1994). The respondent was the person to whom the survey instrument was addressed and, presumably, administered. Respondent-protection was ensured in several ways. First, the respondent had the opportunity to opt out of the study (Alrik & Settle, 1985; and Gray & Guppy, 1994). Second, nowhere on the instrument, or in the coding scheme was there a mechanism to trace a particular instrument to a particular respondent. Although, to facilitate non-respondent tracking, each survey had been assigned a sequential serial number and a coding list matching survey-to-institution prepared, this list did not include potential respondent identification (always unknown to researcher). Furthermore, respondents were informed of this tracking in the covering letter (Alrik & Settle, 1985; and Gray & Guppy, 1994). Only one copy of the cross-reference list existed, and access to it was limited to the researcher and the data-input clerk (for the sole purpose of being able to track non-respondents). Third, data analysis focused on national or regional trends, tendencies and evolution, not on an identifiable individual in a specific institution.

Institutions:

Institutions were referred to by non-referenced serial numbers and province. This measure, used in conjunction with that related to respondent protection yields institutional anonymity.

Students:

The research had to ensure protection of past and present students within surveyed establishments (Burgess, 1989). The project was designed to only seek broad demographic information and trends related to the general international student population found in Canadian establishments, at a national and regional level. The researcher made no attempt to discover specific information about individual students. The institution provided the information on student records via the survey instrument; consequently, researcher intrusion in student records was non-existent (Burgess, 1989). No individual information can be traced to a specific student, in a specific institution.

Summary

The research rests on two mutually-reinforcing components, one qualitative and consisting of five interviews, the other quantitative and comprising an in-depth survey of 123 postsecondary institutions. Interviews were completed during the early stages of the research. Their purpose was to provide a deeper understanding of key aspects of international education in Canada. Interviewing practitioners, some of whom had been involved in international education since the late 1950's, assisted in focussing on areas of significance, understanding history of the field, and identifying social, political, cultural and economic underpinnings of Canada's international undertakings.

The survey aimed at obtaining information about international education at the institution level. This survey was administered to one hundred and twenty-three institutions across Canada. This instrument comprised eight sections. Section I assessed relevancy of the survey to institutions. Section II aimed at gaining broad information concerning respondents. Section III was designed to gain a general idea of the institution location and demographics. Section IV focussed on international departments at the institutions. In Section V, respondents were asked about institutional involvement in international education, chronological milestones in international activities, international student demographics, regional and disciplinary focus, credentials obtained by international students, success rate of international education, and means of evaluation. Section VI dealt with issues deemed important but not naturally fitting elsewhere. These issues included institutional proactivity in international education and marketing strategies relied upon by institutions to market their international services. Section VII aimed at obtaining respondent opinions, perceptions and beliefs concerning international education at their institutions, as well as in general. Lastly, Section VIII presented respondents with an opportunity to comment on the quality of the survey and to add information considered essential but which would not have been encapsulated by existing questions.

Since both interviews and survey involved human participants, the research underwent appropriate ethics review before being approved. Once approved, it was conducted in strict adherence to stipulated research guidelines.

CHAPTER IV -- FINDINGS FROM INTERVIEWS

Preamble

As indicated in Chapter I, the research rests, in part, on five semi-structured interviews conducted to gain first-hand knowledge of early and current issues in college and postsecondary technical education assistance in Canada -- in congruence with research questions and the conceptual framework presented in Figure 2.1. These interviews targeted seasoned international education practitioners, all previously associated in an administrative capacity with a representative postsecondary technical institution in Western Canada.

Interviews were conducted using a specially designed schedule (see Appendix #1). These interviews were semi-structured in that their schedule was used as a guide, not as a limitation imposed on the contribution made by interviewees (Bogdan & Biklen, 1992). The sessions were recorded, and tapes transcribed at a later date. From the transcriptions the researcher developed a narrative report which he subsequently analysed using documentary research techniques. These interviews contributed significantly to identification of major issues, problems, difficulties, trends and tendencies, as well as strengths and potentials in Canadian international education assistance. To maintain confidentiality interviewees were given serial numbers 1 to 5. These numbers have been used to reference quoted information in the following presentation of findings.

Past Developments

Initial Involvement

The earliest international involvement by Canadian institutions can be traced back to the late 1950's. Early activities consisted of assisting ex-British colonies in Central Africa. The institution with which all respondents were associated first engaged in such pursuits circa 1963.

Canada's initial involvement in international education (of the vocational / technical variety) coincided chronologically with political independencies of British colonies in Africa. This was a time when departing expatriates had to be replaced by a local skilled workforce. As a result a new sector emerged in local populations comprised of skilled technicians and journeymen trained in-country by Canadian consultants.

Initially, overseas projects were undertaken on the basis of personal contacts and friendship ties between Canadian and foreign leaders. As stated by respondent #1 with reference to Zambia,

> Zambian president Kenneth Kahunda and Canadian prime minister Mike Pearson were long time friends and a good communication existed between them. Zambia's need for technical assistance was probably discussed between them or by their officials. And there you have the answer.

Similarly, as mentioned by all interviewees, personal interest played an important role at the institutional level -- administrators and staff supporting projects falling within their areas of personal interest. As noted by respondent #1,

> once you have received the sort of official nod (*by governments*), the weight was typically carried by the institutions themselves. I think that, in the vast majority of cases, the enthusiasm of some of the staff of the institutions probably was the more dominant force.

Even in this context of personalized mode of selection, the Canadian International Development Agency (CIDA) was already involved in project funding.

Canada Suitability

Canada was well positioned to provide guidance as it had just embarked successfully on a large-scale overhaul of its own technical education system. By the late 1950's it was generally accepted that the practice of importing qualified technicians from abroad would no longer be a practical way of filling the technical void existing in Canada's labour market. As a consequence, Canada decided that it should develop its own technical training capacity, and create a new, dynamic approach to technical education. This decision eventually resulted in preparation of the Canadian Technical and Vocational Training Act, and the creation of colleges, CÉGEPS, and institutes of technology across the nation.

All interviewees pointed out that newly independent countries of Africa, in search of suitable educational substitutes for British schooling, were quick to turn their attention to Canada. The country offered a form of technical training deemed superior to the British one. The latter, based on a guild system, responded poorly to African realities. Canadian technical education was more modern, flexible, responsive, and not provided by the former colonial power. Building ties with Canada in the 1960's did not imply an ideological alignment similar to that associated with consuming services provided by the United States or the USSR. Furthermore, all interviewees perceived that Canada was itself a former British colony which had successfully made the transition from dominion to industrialized nation.

Initially, Canadian international education was rooted in liberal humanism and driven by humanitarian concerns. Canada perceived that it was more advanced than the South, and that, as such, it was desirable and justified to assist nations in need. At that time, international assistance was presented and seen as precisely that: assistance. It was not expected to bring sizeable financial returns. All interviewees mentioned that, on the contrary, early international education practitioners often perceived assistance to be of some cost to the provider, which was willingly assumed on humanitarian grounds.

Once institutions had established a good reputation in certain areas of Africa, neighbouring countries expressed interest in availing themselves of the services of Canadian educators. Involvement in Africa ceased almost entirely in the mid 1970's, after nearly fifteen years of uninterrupted activity. Soon, as pointed out by all respondents, Latin American and South East Asian nations knocked at Canada's doors to request similar assistance. These requests, generally channelled through CIDA, were at first sporadic. While a certain level of activity occurred in Latin America, it did not amount to that experienced in Asia.

The Early Days

The beginnings were marked by a lack of clarity of purpose and fuzziness of goals, intents, commitments and expected returns at all levels -- federal, provincial, and institutional. Institutions were unsure if they should become involved in international education, or -- in the event they became involved -- which direction their efforts should follow. As recalled by respondent #4,

> two important questions dominated the issue of international education in the early days. The first one was what is this thing everyone called international education or international development, and the second was why on earth should we get involved in it?

To some extent, the lack of clarity experienced at the outset still haunts the field today. The Federal Technical and Vocational Training Acts and Alberta Technical Institutes Act made no mention of international activities, and were of little use to institutions attempting to operate outside the Canadian arena. Although CIDA and Foreign Affairs provided some guidelines regarding Canadian assistance, they did not focus specifically on the role education should play.

In the early days, institutional involvement consisted principally of large overseas consultancies. Little occurred in terms of training of international students in Canada. This sort of training appeared later, from the mid-1970's on. When students eventually came to Canadian institutions, they did so in three distinctive waves -- albeit with a certain degree of overlap. First came those in need of initial technical training, followed in time by individuals requiring upgrading, then by students seeking specialization. The early era was also characterized by the absence of inter-institutional undertakings. Although communication did exist between institutions, they generally lacked coordination and undertook projects on an individual basis rather than sharing resources and expertise.

Administration of International Education

At the beginning -- at the institution with which respondents were associated -- international activities were the responsibility of the Office of the Vice President. All interviewees stated that no special department existed to handle international education, and the institution did not have a mandate governing such activity. In the mid-1980's, however, the institution created a department to handle international education. The creation of a dedicated department under a directorship brought about several important changes. Ties were developed and/or reinforced with international agencies in Canada and abroad, as well as with major funding bodies. Under the new department, international education started to enjoy wider support from the Canadian Bureau of

International Education (CBIE), Association of Canadian Community Colleges (ACCC), CIDA, and World University Service of Canada (WUSC). Similarly, the newly created directorship received support from the Federal and Provincial Governments. The early directorship, according to all interviewees, also saw the emergence of a mandate regulating international activities.

Around 1985, an advisory committee consisting of members of the institution's senior administrative body was formed to make recommendations on project selection. Formation of this committee signalled the moving away from project choice based on less defined criteria such as personal interest. Under the guidance of such a committee, the tendency continued to embark on almost all projects falling within institutional strengths -- keeping in mind that the total number of projects in the mid-1980's was modest. Administrators already recognized the wisdom and critical importance of staying within institutional strengths and refraining from pursuing projects ill-suited to the institution.

Selection and Handling of International Activities

Although project-selection procedure was not etched in stone it included a series of important criteria. These were, and to a large extent still are, the following: institutional expertise, availability of human resources, rationality / purpose of getting involved, existence of adequate funding, support of major agencies, opportunity for staff development and exchange, level of interest, possible negative or positive impacts on institution, likelihood of approval, time factor, complexity of logistical details, and political climate of recipient nation. Project-selection called for a set of preconditions to be met, over and above the presence of technical proficiency at the institutional level.

Doubts existed in the early years of directorship, as to the most appropriate way to handle requests from foreign countries and institutions. The operation was still in its infancy, key players had limited experience, institutional budgets were minimal, and marketing of services overseas was non-existent. Although the directorship now existed, locating it in the existing institutional administrative structure was problematic. Not the least of the problems was that international undertakings did not follow neatly the Canadian academic/budget year, and that costs and returns of international involvement were difficult to forecast or estimate. The latter made educational administrators particularly uneasy. The operation of the department continued to exhibit reactivity rather than proactivity -- reacting to opportunities forwarded by agencies, rather than discovering or creating new ones.

Over time, the directorship saw its proactivity increase and its marketing budget grow manyfold. Progressively the focus of attention and operation shifted from Africa and Latin America to the Pacific Rim -- following closely Canadian foreign policy. Changes also occurred in the area of business involvement in international education. Although Canadian business had comparatively little involvement in international education undertakings in the early days, by the late 1980's it assumed a more prominent role that continues to grow.

Benefits and Functions of International Education

Most interviewees pointed out that, from an institutional perspective, international education offered several benefits, specifically, to provide institutional staff development opportunities, support the Canadian private sector, help meet Canada's commitment towards assistance to the South, and -- if possible -- make a small profit. They also mentioned that the order of these priorities has changed over time. Making profit now ranks as the topmost priority.

From the time of its creation, the international education department in the institution which with all respondents were affiliated was conceived of as a secondary or ancillary department. This secondary status was, and still is, reflected by the meagre department staffing. All interviewees stressed that permanent staff rarely comprises more than a director, one or two clerks, and staff seconded from other departments and program areas within the institution. Status and staffing are recalled by respondent #2 in the following terms:

> the institution gave us support by saying here is an office, but it never was a one hundred percent commitment for us to take permanent staff here. There was never a commitment for a full-time salary there other than the director.

Institutional staff expertise was first systematically investigated during the early phase of directorship, when a database of skills, interests, talents and willingness to partake in international activities was compiled. It is unclear how well this database has been maintained.

Personnel Selection

Personnel selected for international duty had to meet certain criteria. Although these criteria were comprehensive, it was often difficult to ensure they could be met. Criteria were associated with ideal types of international consultants and could rarely be found neatly packaged in real-life employees. Desirable characteristics were: technical proficiency, technical qualification/certification, interpersonal skills, self-reliance, good health, linguistic and cultural compatibilities, awareness of existence of different beliefs and values, and travel experience. Many respondents acknowledged that it was difficult to satisfy criteria beyond technical/vocational skills, proficiency and qualifications. As recalled by respondent #2:

> initially we thought of recruitment being democratic, have an open competition, and then select the features that we identify as necessary for the job. It did not happen. It did not happen that way because number one, the time constraints. Number two is the availability of the manpower here. Sometimes the best person was simply not available.

Furthermore, respondents recognized that technical/vocational strengths alone could not automatically guarantee success.

According to respondent #2, recruiting often failed to meet ideals set for personnel selection. The intent, initially, was to open international assignments to intra-institutional competition, and allow for the best candidate to be selected. This system progressively evolved into one where individuals were appointed to international positions, on the basis of staff surplus, position redundancy, and other criteria having, at times, little to do with qualifications, experience or training. Even though this recruiting system was less than ideal, it seemed to yield better consultants than those obtained from hiring directly off the street, from the public at large.

Department Funding

Another reflection of the secondary status of the department was its modest budget. Even immediately after the creation of the directorship, budgets were minimal and so were financial expectations. According to most interviewees, financial goals were to break even or make a small profit. Since the late 1980's, however, financial goals have changed. As observed by respondent #2,

> then the number one priority was human resource development and number five was to make a small profit, today we definitely resolve it into these words: number one must be cost effectiveness -- must be a profit, profit generation. Human resource development is now only a distant priority.

The period has been marked by an increase in income, operational budget and a perceptible geographical focus on the Pacific Rim, a region of higher solvency. Along with a stronger focus on revenue-generation, mentioned all respondents, international education started to assume a more pronounced role in supporting the Canadian private sector -- following contemporary changes in Canadian foreign policy. Long- and short-term projects were undertaken. Long-term projects provided large revenue-generation -- essentially ensuring financial survival of the department; short-term projects, although less rewarding financially, provided staff with professional development opportunities.

Current Developments

New Priorities

The institution entered the 1990's with revenue-generation as a priority, and with clients who can pay for services as its principal target market. Some respondents stressed crucial differences between international clients purchasing services with aid money -- largely recycling CIDA funds, and those buying Canadian services with their own money -- thereby bringing new funds to Canada. The latter clients are increasingly being looked upon as preferred customers.

International Students

Population

From the 1980's on, the number of students coming to Canada for training has grown considerably. This growth can in part be attributed to overseas achievements which gave Canadian institutions a good reputation abroad, and can, therefore, be viewed as one of their natural consequences. All respondents mentioned that, at the institution with which they were associated, training of international students is currently an undertaking as important as involvement in overseas projects. International students are generally young adults who already possess credentials. They come to Canada to complement the theoretical education received at home with a practical component. These students invariably belong to the academic elite of their countries of origin. They do not, however, necessarily come from the financial elite. Many of them are technical/vocational educators coming to Canada for specialized teacher-training in their discipline area.

Credentials obtained

All interviewees stated that credentials received at the institution by international students are of two broad types: regular credentials -- similar to those earned by Canadian students, and international credentials. The latter credentials consist of diplomas and certificates reflecting the customized nature of programs completed. In either case, standards are strictly adhered-to. International credentials do not have direct correspondence or currency in the Canadian labour market. Students have to demonstrate an appropriate level of English proficiency by passing the Test of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL).

Categories of students

According to all interviewees, most international students come to Canada within the framework of international exchanges. These exchanges typically define which institution students will attend. Consequently, the selection of an establishment where to study typically rests outside the scope of student influence. Since international students are typically sponsored, their studies are often financed by agencies and/or governments.

Disciplinary focus

Although some minor focus changes have occurred over time, the highest concentration of international students enrolled in Canadian institutions is found in engineering disciplines and associated trades. This specific disciplinary thrust is congruent with creation of middle-careers in priority sectors of Southern economies. At the institution discussed, early enrollment was initially strong in industrial and mechanical programs. Most interviewees mentioned that, more recently, a shift has occurred towards petroleum, instrumentation, plastics, water resources, and -- more modestly -- business administration.

Geographic origin

Currently, most international students come from Asia and -- to a much lesser degree -- Eastern Europe. Although post-perestrojka Eastern Europe has triggered the interest of Canadian institutions, most are hesitant to become involved in the region as it presently stands. Political uncertainties and a lukewarm commitment to market economy seem to present too much of a risk for Canada's educational entrepreneurs.

Clients in secondary system

A specific segment of the international student population has attracted the interest of Canadian institutions in the last few years. This segment comprises foreign students presently enrolled in Canadian secondary schools. These students are from more affluent families, have the means of paying higher education differential fees, and -- as products of the Canadian secondary systems -- will eventually be easier and less costly to integrate in postsecondary systems than their recently-arrived peers. Due to their solvency and previous educational experience in Canada, these international students seem to hold great promise for Canadian postsecondary institutions. Respondent #2 was unequivocal about the potential these students represent:

> we find that the students are here right now. Our idea of marketing is that we are not going to go out and fly all over the world looking for students. Our idea of recruitment is to recruit students right here. We think that the market is here already. They are (students) the ones we are going to grab onto because they are here, committed to Canada.

Partnerships

In parallel with training of international students in Canada and assistance projects overseas, two recent developments have occurred. These developments revolved around partnerships. The first type of partnerships involved educational institutions both in Canada and abroad. In this type, Canadian postsecondary technical institutions teamed up with one or more counterpart institutions in the developing world. Canada endorsed/approved training was then made available in these overseas institutions to serve the host country and/or neighbouring regions. In some variations of these partnerships Canadian-approved credentials were granted.

A variation of such partnerships could also involve the creation of new institutions overseas, under the guidance or mentorship of a Canadian institution. In this case, consultants participated in building the new institution and assisted in policy-making, curriculum design, teacher training and -- on occasion -- even construction. The role of Canadian personnel abroad varied widely in accordance with its expected level of involvement and skills and qualifications of local staff.

Respondent #3 commented that partnerships often involved educational institutions and business and industry sectors in Canada and abroad. Typically, institutions provided pedagogical / andragogical components, and the business and industry sectors provided content expertise. This form of partnership is based on the rationale that business/industry sectors could be more responsive to technological changes than institutions, but that these sectors lacked the skills necessary to provide effective delivery.

Evaluation of Services

Canadian international technical/vocational education in its many forms (consultancies, projects, partnerships and training of international students) has traditionally consisted of the direct transplant of Canadian worldviews, ideas, orientations, skills, techniques, equipment and know-how to other countries (4, 5). Rarely have deep or significant modifications to programs been made before transplant occurred. As observed by respondent #4,

> what we have generally done in the past was to simply go out and project our own culture, our own practices, and our own approaches. We did this because that was all we knew and were familiar with. That was why we felt it was good.

Evaluation of services provided has always been an important part of international education. The process took different forms, depending on type of service rendered. Evaluation of international students was typically effected through their successfully obtaining desired certifications. Students were deemed successful when they obtained their two-year diploma or one-year certificate. Similarly, enrollees in custom-designed programs were successful when they met criteria specified for these programs and obtain relevant certification. Obtention of appropriate certification by students also showed that, indeed, the institution had provided them with skills and knowledge necessary to successfully perform on tests and examinations. Training success was attested-to by lack of complaints from clients.

Overseas projects and consultancies were objects of a different evaluation process. This process relied on contractual terms of reference and memoranda of understanding (MOU). Here, according to most interviewees, success meant meeting or exceeding contractual commitments and MOU provisions. When major international agencies were involved in projects and consultancies, they followed their own standardized evaluation processes in addition to that utilized by the institution. Furthermore, projects and consultancies typically involved an on-going feedback process. In the unlikely event of departure from contractual terms and MOU provisions, most interviewees stated that feedback mechanisms ensured prompt correction while limiting possibilities of experiencing difficulties. In the rare cases Canadian institutions encountered unexpected difficulties, they typically went well beyond expectations to ensure client satisfaction.

Possible Future Trends

Although respondents' answers concerning past and current developments exhibited high congruence, their perceptions of international education's future revealed differences. These perceptions were expressed as individual opinions.

Respondent #1, who had been in retirement the longest and contributed significantly to the discussion of past and current developments, did not offer his view on the future of international education. His contribution in this area amounted to mentioning the changing needs of foreign clients. Respondent #5 limited his input to sharing his belief in future increased activities in Mexico within the North American Free Trade Agreement (NAFTA).

Respondent #4 perceived the need for Canadian institutions to become more creative than they have been in the past. According to him, international clients are quickly catching up in the technology game and, if institutions want to maintain their favourable position in the international arena, they must transcend the simple transfer and transplant of what Canadians do at home. Institutions must develop new spheres of knowledge to maintain client interest.

The same respondent looked favourably upon increasing partnerships between business, industry, and education (on the ground of rationales presented earlier in this chapter). Respondent #4 also anticipated forthcoming support from communication and computer technologies in the dissemination of training in the South. In the opinion of respondent #4,

> We will have to develop innovative delivery systems based on technology; not any longer will it be satisfactory for Canadian educators to keep on travelling to those countries and deliver lectures when we can do teleconferencing, when we can use technologically-based approaches to teaching.

Relying on these technologies, Canadian institutions could still generate revenue while reducing costs usually associated with delivery and student-handling. For respondent #4, therefore, the future of international education is quite bright -- assuming Canadian institutions become more creative and engage in alternate delivery methods.

Respondent #3 had a rather different perception of the field and its future. He felt that institutions would progressively retreat from international spheres. In his opinion,

> many of our educational institutions are really rethinking whether they should be in international education or not. They are presently redefining their main objectives, or clarifying, or maybe reaffirming them and they are, possibly, going to chart a different direction for the future.

He believed that most of them had entered international education during a period of little fiscal restraints, when money was flush and accountability scant. Today, according to this respondent, institutions no longer have sufficient funds to devote to exotic pursuits such as international education. These pursuits are increasingly difficult to justify within and without the institutions, especially when funds available for Canadian students continue to shrink. For respondent #3, international activities will likely diminish in importance or disappear altogether and, where they subsist, will be the product of inter-institutional partnerships, not of bursts of individual entrepreneurship. In the arena of inter-institutional cooperation, respondent #3 perceived centres of educational excellence to be of critical importance.

To respondent #2, the future of international education is tied to more proactive marketing and recruiting abroad, as well as to capturing the market of international students presently enrolled in Canada's secondary systems. Targeting the latter market will likely change the socio-economic nature of postsecondary enrollees, with increased representation of students from more financially endowed classes. To respondent #2, there is no doubt that education is a commodity and that international education can be used successfully to open doors for Canadian business and industry abroad. This respondent thought that opening such doors was more financially promising than the sale of international education.

Respondent #2 also perceived a dire need for rewarding programs and educators involved in the training of international students and overseas projects. According to him, international activities can only gain importance and achieve success if they are properly funded and rewarded. This is especially true today when institutional budgets are decreasing and staff has little extra time to devote to activities outside the limited scope of their primary instructional duties.

Ethics of International Education and Associated Concerns

Although the interviews were not conducted to focus on ethical and social aspects of international postsecondary technical education, ethics, social issues and education can never be dissociated entirely. These important links notwithstanding, only two respondents out of five made any reference at all to ethical and social issues and, in both instances, these references were quite superficial. The first instance involved respondent #1 who mentioned that, in retrospect, if things had to be done again they might be done differently. The second instance occurred when respondent #3 expressed doubts about the appropriateness of having transplanted Canadian beliefs and values in the South.

Summary

Semi-structured interviews were conducted of five seasoned international education practitioners. These had all been associated in a senior capacity with the same representative institution in Western Canada. The purpose of these interviews was twofold. First, it was to gain a better understanding of what had occurred, over time, in Canadian international education. Second, it was to provide guidance in survey preparation. Furthermore, the researcher devised the interviews to give respondents considerable freedom to voice their opinions, orientations and perceptions.

According to the perception of respondents, Canadian international education emerged in the late 1950s as a result of personal contacts between Canadian educators and foreign educators or political leaders. They identified that the initial region of activity was Africa. Having overhauled its own technical education system in the early 1960s, Canada was well placed to provide technical education assistance to the developing world. They further suggested that the beginning of Canadian international education was marked by a lack of clarity of purpose and fuzziness of goals, intents, commitments, and expected returns.

First, international education took the form of large projects. Later foreign students came to Canada in search of technical training. In the early days international education was not the product of inter-institutional undertakings. Eventually an international education department was established at the institution where interviewees worked. Under the new directorship, international education enjoyed wider support from a variety of agencies and organizations.

Nevertheless, the institution always perceived international education to be a secondary or ancillary activity and permanent staff rarely comprised more than a director, one or two clerks, and staff seconded from other departments and program areas within the institution. Personnel selected for international duty had to meet certain criteria. Although these criteria were comprehensive, it was often difficult to ensure they could all be met and recruiting often failed to meet ideals set for personnel selection

At the beginning, budgets were modest and financial goals were to break even or make a small profit. Since the late 1980's, however, financial goals have changed from breaking even to revenue-generation. Over time, the directorship saw its proactivity increase and its marketing budget grow manyfold. Progressively the focus of attention and operation shifted from Africa and Latin America to the Pacific Rim -- following closely Canadian foreign policy.

From the 1980's on, the number of students coming to Canada for training has grown considerably, these were generally young adults who already possessed credentials. They come to Canada to complement the theoretical education received at home with a practical component. Most of these international students come to Canada within the framework of international exchanges. In addition, a specific segment of the international student population has attracted the interest of Canadian institutions in the last few years. This segment comprises foreign students presently enrolled in Canadian secondary schools.

A new international education development is that of partnerships. These include partnerships between Canadian institutions and institutions overseas, as well as partnerships between institutions and business -- in Canada and abroad. Interviewees believed that, in the future, these forms of partnership would come to play an ever-increasing role in international education.

CHAPTER V -- SURVEY RESULTS

The survey was addressed to 123 institutions meeting the operational definition of postsecondary technical institution or college proposed in Chapter I. These were located as follows: British Columbia (17), Alberta (15), Saskatchewan (8), Manitoba (6), Ontario (27), Quebec (28), Newfoundland/Labrador (5), Nova Scotia (3), New Brunswick (10), Prince Edward Island (1), and Northwest Territories/Yukon (3). Of these 123 institutions 72 (59%) responded. Among these 72 respondents, one was a private institution which was eliminated for it did not meet the entry criteria for the study. Consequently the final response rate was 71/122 (58%).

Relevancy to Institution

This section of the survey dealt with the issue of institutional involvement in international education directed towards establishing institutions which did not participate in international education. Only institutions participating in overseas projects and/or teaching/training of international students on campus in Canada were requested to continue answering the survey.

Of the 71 initial respondents 10 indicated they did not participate in international education. The 10 institutions were distributed as follows: one in British Columbia, four in Saskatchewan, two in Manitoba, two in Quebec and one in NewBrunswick. These were eliminated from data analysis and subsequent discussion, bringing the final number of eligible respondents to 123-10-1=112, and the data analysis is based on 61 respondents representing 54% of institutions. Of these, 49 (80%) were English speaking, while 12 (20%) were French speaking.

Respondent Demographics

This section of the survey concentrated on obtaining a better understanding of international education practitioners by asking respondents to state their administrative title, length of international experience, length of experience with institution, level and area of education, and languages spoken.

Administrative Title

Respondent answers indicated that no single title prevails across institutions to identify individuals managing international education departments. Titles most commonly encountered were: director, manager, coordinator, or advisor. Of these, the title of director was the most prevalent.

International Experience Before Joining Institution and International Activities with Institution (years)

As shown in Table 1, 46% of the respondents did not have international experience before joining their institution, and 23% had between 1 and 5 years of experience. The percentage with experience decreased for respondents indicating between 6 and 10 years (15%), 11 and 15 years (7%), 16 and 20 years (5%), and more than 20 years experience (5%). The majority of respondents (85%) had between 1 and 10 years of international activity with their institutions, while only 7% had less than 5 years, and 9% more than 11 years.

Table 1: International experience before joining institution and international activity with institution.

	EXPERIENCE		PARTICIPATION	
YEARS	**n**	**%**	**n**	**%**
0	28	46	4	7
1 - 5	14	23	30	49
6 - 10	9	15	22	36
11 - 15	4	7	4	7
16 - 20	3	5	0	0
> 20	3	5	1	2

Education

Table #2 shows level of education of respondents, as well as respondent primary area of training. Levels of education status indicated that 67% of respondents completed graduate studies. In the area of primary training, 47% of respondents selected the category "education" , with additional significant disciplinary concentration under categories of "business" (13%) and "international education/development" (12%). Under the category "others", 28% of respondents mentioned they had primary training in areas not directly provided for in the survey. These were: political sciences, community development, adult education, environmental studies, linguistics, psychology, sociology, intercultural communication, information technology, humanities, hospitality and broadcasting.

Table 2: Respondent level of education and area of primary training.

LEVEL*	n	%
Journeyman / Trade certification	3	5
Technical / Technology diploma	7	12
Undergraduate degree	25	41
Graduate degree	41	67
AREA		
Agriculture / Fisheries	5	8
Business	8	13
Economics	1	2
Education	29	47
Engineering	4	7
Health Sciences	6	10
International Education/Development	7	12
Natural Resources / Earth Sciences	0	0
Political Sciences	4	7
Sciences	4	7
Trades / Apprenticeships	3	5
Others	17	28

* A number of respondents indicated all applicable categories. Hence their number exceeds 61.

Languages

The highest level of language proficiency (advanced) was English (75%) and French (28%). There were 41% of respondents that knew 3 languages at some level of proficiency (basic to advanced), and 21% knew only English. The third language identified by respondents (29%) was Spanish. In addition to English, French and Spanish, varying degrees of fluency were indicated in Arabic, Bahasa Indonesian, Créole, Dutch, German, Hindi, Italian, Japanese, Kikongo, Punjabi, miscellaneous slavic languages, Thai and Welsh. Some of these languages registered minor percentages and would be of varying degrees of relevancy to international education.

Institution Demographics

A clearer understanding of length of operation, geographical context and broad demographics of the institution with which the respondent was affiliated was sought.

Table 3: Foundation of institution/international department by period.

	FOUNDATION OF INSTITUTION		ESTABLISHMENT OF DEPARTMENT	
YEAR	n	%	n	%
< 1920	6	10	1	2
1920 - 1950	1	2	0	0
1951 -1960	4	7	0	0
1961 - 1970	37	61	0	0
1971 - 1980	4	7	8	13
1981 - 1990	5	8	22	36
> 1990	2	3	22	36

The largest concentration (61%) shown for the year of foundation of the institution is for the period 1961 to 1970, while the period during which a department began to be established primarily started in 1971 or immediately following the increase in number of existing institutions (Table 3). Responses also indicate that 72% of Canadian international education departments found in postsecondary technical education institutions and colleges were established since 1981.

Location, City Size and Total Student Population

Data presented in Table 4 showed the largest concentration of institutions in Ontario (31%), followed by Alberta (20%), Quebec (13%), British Columbia (12%), and New Brunswick (10%). No institution reported from Newfoundland. Institutions are equally distributed between city and town with a population not exceeding 50,000 inhabitants (36%) and those where population exceeds 250,000 (31%), with cities and towns whose population fall between these two extremes accounting for a combined total of 27%. As indicated in Table 4, 53% of institutions have a student population of 5,000 or less. This population takes into account national and international students. About half as many institutions (25%) cater to between 5,001 and 10,000, while 21% have an enrolment over 10,000 students.

Response rate per province/territory was as follows: Prince Edward Island and Northwest Territory/Yukon lead at 100%, next came Alberta (80%), Ontario (70%) and New Brunswick (60%). Following more distantly were Manitoba (50%), British Columbia (41%), Nova Scotia (33%), Quebec (29%) and Saskatchewan (13%). No answer was received from Newfoundland/Labrador.

International Education Department

The survey aimed at discovering if the institution had a department specializing in international activities; department title; adequacy of staff complement; operated with full-time staff or with seconded personnel; if overseas consultants were ever hired; and skills important for in-classroom educators and field staff.

Existence of International Education Department

As a rule, institutions had a department dedicated to international education activities (75%). Some respondents (25%) mentioned that international responsibilities resided elsewhere -- such as with the President or Vice-President office, or were diffused throughout the institution and drawn upon ad-hoc.

Table 4: Location, city size, total student population.

PROVINCE	N	n	%
British Columbia	17	7	12
Alberta	15	12	20
Saskatchewan	8	1	2
Manitoba	6	3	5
Ontario	27	19	31
Quebec	28	8	13
Newfoundland	5	0	0
Nova Scotia	3	1	2
New Brunswick	10	6	10
P.E.I.	1	1	2
N.W.T. / Yukon	3	3	5
POPULATION			
0-50,000		22	36
50,001-100,000		7	12
100,001-250,000		9	15
>250,000		19	31
STUDENTS			
0-5,000		32	53
5,001-10,000		15	25
10,001-15,000		5	8
15,001-30,000		5	8
>30,000		3	5

Name of Department

Findings revealed that international education services were known under a variety of names, notwithstanding the similarity of services provided. Most common among labels used were: international education office, international office, international project office, international services, international and community contract services, development office, projects ventures, unit of international cooperation, and program development. From answers supplied it was clear that no department name standardization existed among surveyed institutions.

Staff Demographics

Staff demographics sought by the survey encompasses data on institutional full-time staff (administrative, instructional and support), full-time staff employed by international education department, as well as mode of selection of institutional staff loaned or seconded to the department.

As presented in Table 5, 59% of institutions had less than 500 institutional staff members, with 30% having staff of between 501 and 1,000. Only 8% of respondents stated their institution employed more than 1,000. The number of staff employed specifically by the international education department varied with the total number of institutional staff, but most departments (66%) functioned with a full-time staff of less than 4. An equal percentage (10%) of departments functioned with between 5 and 10 staff members, and over 10.

The general practice among institutions is for administration to appoint institutional staff to international education duties (46%), instead of selecting them via internal open competition (21%). Some respondents (15%) indicated their institution relied on both processes. The majority of respondents (69%) stated their institutions hire consultants for overseas postings while 31% did not. A total of 57% of respondents felt their department did not have a sufficient staff complement to handle international activities effectively. Sixty-nine percent of respondents indicated the practice of hiring consultants for overseas posting rather than using personnel from the institution.

Table 5: Institutional staff, department staff and modes of selection.

INSTITUTION FULL-TIME STAFF	n	%
0-500	36	59
501-1,000	18	30
1,001-1,500	3	5
1,501-2,000	2	3
INTERNATIONAL DEPT. FULL-TIME STAFF		
1	10	16
2	11	18
3	10	16
4	10	16
5 -10	6	10
> 10	6	10
MODE OF SELECTION OF PERSONNEL ON LOAN TO DEPARTMENT		
Open competition (internal)	13	21
Appointment by administration	28	46
Answered both	9	15

Importance of Skills

The survey aimed at determining the importance of specific skills for teachers of international students in Canada, and Canadian personnel on overseas duty. Focus was placed, in related questions, on foreign languages, cross-cultural abilities, practical and applied knowledge, academic proficiency, and previous international experience. For teachers of international students in Canada, foreign languages were reported as being "very important" by 5% of respondents, cross-cultural skills by 67%, practical/applied skills by 80%, academic skills by 63%, and international experience by 13% (Table 6). For Canadian educators involved in overseas duties, the same skills were considered "very important" by more respondents, as manifested by the respective responses: 16% for languages, 74% for cross-cultural skills, 85% for practical/applied skills, 64% for academic skills, and 33% for international experience.

Although some differences were negligible or small -- such as in the case of academic skills (1%) or practical/ applied skills (5%), others were more significant. These were particularly visible under foreign languages and international experience in the "very important" category.

While foreign language knowledge was identified as "very important" for teachers by 5% of respondents, 16% gave it the same rating for overseas workers. Similar differences appeared when international experience for teachers was rated as "very important" by 13% of respondents, while identified as such by 33% for overseas workers.

Table 6: Importance of skills for teaching and overseas duties.

	TEACHING			**OVERSEAS DUTIES**		
	Importance			**Importance**		
SKILLS	**Very** **n (%)**	**Moderate** **n (%)**	**Not** **n (%)**	**Very** **n (%)**	**Moderate** **n (%)**	**Not** **n (%)**
Foreign language	3 (5)	23 (37)	35 (57)	10 (16)	29 (48)	22 (36)
Cross-cultural	41 (67)	16 (26)	4 (7)	45 (74)	14 (23)	2 (3)
Practical/Applied	49 (80)	6 (10)	5 (8)	52 (85)	5 (8)	4 (7)
Academic	39 (63)	17 (28)	5 (8)	39 (64)	17 (28)	5 (8)
International experience	8 (13)	38 (62)	15 (25)	22 (33)	31 (51)	10 (16)

Funding

Survey questions addressing funding aimed at discovering if international education departments were financed by the institution or on a cost-recovery basis, and the magnitude of such funding. The survey also asked how much total institutional revenue was attributable to international education activities. Table 7 presents these findings.

In terms of funding, 67% of respondents indicated their departments did not receive funding from the institution and operated as cost-recovery entities. Another 21% answered that their departments were allocated 1% of the total institutional budget. The two combined indicate that 88% of international education departments surveyed operated with a maximum of 1% institutional funding. Seven percent of responding institutions allocated between 2% and 5% of the institutional budget in support of their operations, while 5% funded their departments entirely.

For respondents stating they did not operate on a cost-recovery basis, some indicated they were contemplating employing that strategy in the future, and others were funded largely through external agencies such as CIDA, ACCC and others. Revenue-generation data indicated that 46% of the departments did not generate institutional income -- notwithstanding the fact they might have operated on a cost-recovery basis. Of the remaining respondents, 25% generated 1% of institution revenue, 23% brought in between 2% and 10%, and 5% were credited for generating between 25% and 50% of the total revenue.

Table 7: International education departments funding and revenue-generation.

FUNDING (%)	n	%
0	41	67
1	13	21
2 - 5	4	7
100	3	5
REVENUE (%)		
0	28	46
1	15	25
2 - 10	14	23
25 - 50	3	5

International Education Activities

A better understanding of what international education was at the responding institution was determined by investigating how important international education is at the institution; major reasons why the institution originally became involved; when activities started; predominant nature of international activities during the periods indicated; importance of certain functions of international education; geographical, disciplinary and programmatic focus of institutional activities; length and function of international programs and projects; number of activities pursued over time; rate of international success achieved and how success assessment/evaluation took place; broad demographic description of international student population who frequented the institution; credential obtained by international student; when follow-up of international graduates occurred; primary intent of international education over time; partnerships with institutions in the South; and, if it entered into such partnerships did it grant credentials endorsed by both partners in the South and itself.

Status of International Education at Institutional Level

When asked if international education was considered a primary activity at their institution, 75% of respondents answered "no", while 25% answered "yes". Similarly, 75% viewed international education as a complementary activity, while 25% did not.

Primary Reason Why Institution Became Involved

Table 8 presents primary reasons for which institutions initially became involved in international education. The major reason reported was institutional initiatives (69%), followed by personal initiatives (43%), foreign formal requests (38%) and foreign informal requests (31%). Federal, provincial, governmental, non-governmental requests and local initiatives all followed at around 20%.

Table 8: Major reasons for institution initial involvement in international education.

REASON	n	%
Informal foreign request	19	31
Formal foreign request	23	38
Federal policy or initiative	14	23
Provincial policy or initiative	13	21
Government agency request	14	23
Non-government request	14	23
Local initiative	9	15
Institution initiative	42	69
Personal initiative	26	43

Period During Which Involvement Began

Five percent of respondents mentioned that their departments first became involved in international education 1960 to 1970, 38% between 1971 and 1980, and 56% between 1986 and the present. Significant increase in international education participation by Canadian institutions over three decades is clearly seen.

Nature of International Activities

Nature of international activities was categorized in (a) teaching of international students on campus, in Canada, and (b) overseas work in the form of international projects. Respondents did not indicate participation in either of these categories for 1960 to 1970. For 1971 to 1985, 8% indicated teaching activities and 6% participation in projects. A much higher level of involvement characterized the period 1986 to the present, when 67% of respondents reported teaching activities, and 79% participated in projects.

Importance of Specific Functions of International Education

Respondent perceived importance of international education in facilitation of economic globalization accounted for 77% percent combined "very important" and "moderate" ratings; formation of human capital -- 47% combined ratings; modernization -

- 72% combined ratings; and promotion of economic growth -- 89% combined ratings. Combined ratings for promotion of social equality and income redistribution are 71% and 38% respectively (Table 9). Under the category "others", respondents also listed the following as important functions of international education: knowledge transfer, revenue generation, staff development, opportunity for cultural exchanges, and internationalization of Canadian students and curricula.

The majority of respondents (89%) also indicated that international education was a good vehicle to promote the sale of Canadian goods and services abroad. Similarly, most respondents (87%) perceived that international activities undertaken by their institutions had a sustained positive economic impact on recipient countries.

Table 9: Importance of functions of international education.

FUNCTION	Very n (%)	Moderate n (%)	Not n (%)
Facilitate economic globalization	20 (33)	27 (44)	14 (23)
Form human capital	25 (41)	22 (36)	14 (23)
Modernize	16 (26)	28 (46)	17 (28)
Promote social equality	14 (23)	29 (48)	18 (30)
Promote economic growth	25 (41)	29 (48)	7 (12)
Redistribute income	3 (5)	20 (33)	38 (62)
Others	7 (12)	1 (2)	53 (87)

Major Geographical Area of Involvement

Table 10 displays major geographical area of international involvement identified by respondents. Although few respondents indicated international education activities for 1960-1970 (8% combined areas), participation steadily increased from 1971 to the present.

Africa and South East Asia emerged in the 1971 to 1985 period as areas of concentration, with 28% and 23% of respondents indicating international involvement in these respective regions. For 1986 to the present, South East Asia consolidated its position as an area of high activity, with 67% of respondents indicating involvement in the region. Next in importance for 1986 to present -- with over 40% of respondents mentioning regional involvement -- were China, Africa, and South America. These were followed by Eastern Europe and Central America (with 33% of respondents each). All other areas were mentioned by 25% of respondents, or less. Under the category "others", respondents stated involvement in the Middle-East, Hong Kong, Japan, Korea, Centra and Western Europe and the USA.

Table 10: Major geographical areas of international education by period.

	1960 - 1970 n (%)	1971 - 1985 n (%)	1986 - present n (%)
Caribbean	0 (0)	10 (16)	19 (31)
China	0 (0)	3 (5)	29 (47)
Eastern Europe	0 (0)	1 (2)	20 (33)
Africa	1 (2)	17 (28)	29 (48)
India	0 (0)	1 (2)	14 (23)
Central America	1 (2)	2 (3)	20 (33)
South America	0 (0)	6 (10)	25 (41)
Oceania	0 (0)	1 (2)	6 (10)
South East Asia	1 (2)	14 (23)	41 (67)
Others	1 (2)	5 (8)	12 (20)

Major Disciplinary Focus of Involvement

In terms of disciplinary focus of international activities (Table 11), the period from 1960 to 1970 recorded limited activities in Agriculture, Applied Arts, Business, Electronics / Electrical / Telecommunication, Hospitality / Tourism, Trade / Apprenticeship, and other areas. The next two periods, 1971 to 1985 and 1986 to the present, exhibited a much higher level of participation in all areas. This was particularly noticeable in the latter period. These areas maintained themselves as a preferred disciplinary focus during 1971 to 1985, and were joined by Mechanical Engineering (12%) -- all other disciplines being reported by less than 10% of respondents.

Table 11: Disciplinary focus of international education by period.

DISCIPLINARY FOCUS	1960 - 1970 n (%)	1971 - 1985 n (%)	1986 - present n (%)
Agriculture	2 (3)	6 (10)	14 (23)
Applied arts	1 (2)	3 (5)	7 (12)
Architecture/Civil	0 (0)	4 (7)	12 (20)
Basic science	0 (0)	0 (0)	4 (7)
Business	2 (3)	8 (13)	37 (61)
Computing/Information	0 (0)	5 (8)	24 (39)
Electrical/Electronics/Telecom	2 (3)	11 (18)	22 (36)
Environmental sciences	0 (0)	1 (2)	20 (33)
Fisheries	0 (0)	2 (3)	4 (7)
Health sciences	0 (0)	3 (5)	18 (30)
Hospitality/Tourism	1 (2)	3 (5)	19 (31)
Mechanical Engineering	0 (0)	7 (12)	15 (25)
Natural resources	0 (0)	2 (3)	7 (12)
Textile	0 (0)	1 (2)	2 (3)
Trades/Apprenticeship	1 (2)	7 (12)	15 (25)
Others	4 (7)	13 (21)	25 (41)

The major disciplinary focus for the period from 1960 to the present occurred in Agriculture (23%), Architecture / Civil Engineering (20%), Business (61%), Computing / Information (39%), Electronics / Electrical / Telecommunication (36%), Environmental Sciences (33%), Health Sciences (30%), Hospitality / Tourism (31%), Mechanical Engineering, 25%), and Trades / Apprenticeship (25%).

Respondents indicated that, over all three periods, they had also focussed their activities on a score of disciplines not listed in the survey. These disciplines were specifically identified as: training for trainers, education, high school curriculum, English as a second language (ESL), languages, educational administration, institution building, establishment of technical training institutes, special education, distance education, and mining. Involvement in disciplines classified as "others" grew over time, as indicated by 7% responses for 1960 to 1970, 21% for 1971-1985, and 41% for that extending from 1986 to the present. Respondents overwhelmingly indicated (95%) that the disciplinary focus reported closely matched institutional disciplinary strengths.

Participation of International Students in Programs

Aside from showing a steady increase in types of participation from period to period, responses showed perceptible concentration in certain types of participation. For the purpose of this and following sections, programs were defined as organized studies using on-campus instruction. This concentration was most obvious for the period starting in 1986, however the same trend could be seen in the previous two periods. The last period exhibited the largest concentration (75%) in regular programs open to Canadian as well as international students. Respondents identified the next highest concentration (61%) in custom programs designed to meet specific needs and requests of international clients. Typically, these were not open to Canadian students.

Forty-four percent of respondents reported teaching practicum and training as being offered by their institutions. These programs cater to the needs of international students already working as educators in postsecondary technical institutions or colleges in their countries of origin. Additional input by respondents, under "others", focussed on provision of language training in the form of English as a second language.

Number of International Education Projects

The survey also yielded data concerning the number of international education projects undertaken by institutions. For the purpose of this and following sections, projects were defined as any technical or educational initiative overseas.

For 1960 - 1970, 60 respondents (98%) indicated they did not have any projects, while 1 respondent (2%) mentioned that his institution had 3 projects. As shown in Table 13, changes in project participation characterized the next two periods, with the most noticeable difference residing in the number of respondents indicating no project. This number dropped from 67% non-participation during 1971-1985 to 15% after 1986. Reported figures also increased perceptibly in all categories, with the exception of institutions claiming participation in more than 100 projects, where the increase was only 1%.

Table 12: Participation of international students by period.

PARTICIPATION	1960 - 1970 n (%)	1971 - 1985 n (%)	1986 - present n (%)
Enrollment in regular program	4 (7)	19 (31)	46 (75)
Enrollment in custom program	1 (2)	11 (18)	37 (61)
Teaching practicum / Training trainers	1 (2)	8 (13)	27 (44)
Others	0 (0)	1 (2)	6 (10)

Table 13: Number of international projects by period.

PROJECTS	1971 - 1985 / n (%)	1986 - present / n (%)
0	41 (67)	9 (15)
1 - 5	11 (18)	15 (25)
6 - 10	3 (5)	18 (30)
11 - 50	5 (8)	18 (30)
> 100	1 (2)	2 (3)

Function of International Programs and Projects

Responses showed the functions of program and project for all three periods (Table 14). They also showed a steady increase for all categories since 1960 for both types of involvement. Function concentration for programs was perceptibly higher for "initial training" (61%), "specialization" (71%) and "upgrading" (48%).

Similarly high concentration in these areas also characterized the two previous periods.

Under the category "others", respondents stated they were involved in degree programs, language training and high school upgrading.

Table 14: Types of international programs and projects undertaken by institution.

FUNCTION OF PROGRAMS	1960 - 1970 n (%)	1971 - 1985 n (%)	1986 - present n (%)
Initial training	2 (3)	16 (26)	37 (61)
Specialization	2 (3)	18 (30)	43 (71)
Upgrading	4 (7)	14 (23)	29 (48)
Career change	0 (0)	3 (4)	9 (15)
Remedial	3 (5)	6 (10)	12 (20)
Others	0 (0)	2 (3)	5 (8)
FUNCTION OF PROJECTS			
Curriculum development	2 (3)	13 (21)	45 (74)
Human resources development	2 (3)	14 (23)	46 (76)
Needs analysis	1 (2)	8 (13)	29 (48)
Program planning	1 (2)	8 (13)	34 (56)
Program evaluation	1 (2)	6 (10)	25 (41)
Teaching students abroad	1 (2)	4 (7)	21 (34)
Technical assistance	1 (2	11 (18)	43 (71)
Training trainers	2 (3)	12 (20)	46 (75)
Others	0 (0)	1 (2)	2 (3)

Function of project also showed an increase over time but most categories showed higher levels of concentration (30% or more) than those found for programs. Nevertheless, four areas exhibited stronger concentration than the others. These were "curriculum development" (74%), "human resources development" or HRD (76%), "technical assistance" (71%) and "training trainers" (75%). Next in importance -- but distant, were "program planning" (56%), "needs analysis" (48%), "program evaluation"

(41%) and "teaching students abroad" (31%). Postsecondary development and student exchanges emerged as additional identified functions, under "others".

Length of Programs and Projects

Information was also sought about length of programs and projects undertaken by institutions. Responses indicated a steady increase in number of programs and projects over the periods listed, with culmination in the period from 1986 to the present (Table 15). In their answers pertaining to the last period, 51% of respondents stated they were involved in programs of less than three months in length, while 36% indicated participation in programs extending over two years.

A comparable polarization -- although reversed -- could be found in project length, where 44% claimed participation in projects shorter than three months, and 57% in projects longer than two years. The most marked difference between trends found in program and project length related to involvement in projects for the 1960-1970 period for which no respondent indicated activity.

Table 15: Length of programs and projects by period.

	PROGRAMS			**PROJECTS**		
MONTHS	**1960 - 1970 n (%)**	**1971 - 1985 n (%)**	**1986 - present n (%)**	**1960 - 1970 n (%)**	**1971- 1985 n (%)**	**1986 - present n (%)**
< 3	3 (5)	12 (20)	31 (51)	0 (0)	7 (12)	27 (44)
3 to 6	3 (5)	9 (15)	25 (41)	0 (0)	9 (15)	15 (25)
7 to 12	3 (5)	8 (13)	21 (34)	0 (0)	4 (7)	13 (21)
13 to 18	2 (3)	6 (10)	12 (20)	0 (0)	1 (2)	5 (8)
19 to 24	2 (3)	8 (13)	23 (38)	0 (0)	3 (5)	11 (18)
> 24	3 (5)	10 (16)	22 (36)	0 (0)	8 (13)	35 (57)

Timing of Follow-up of Completed Projects

The survey also sought to gain a better understanding of the time(s) at which follow-up of completed international education projects occurred. Follow-up was defined as a process designed to assess the degree of success of the undertaking. As indicated in Table 16, the most common practice was to assess projects immediately (67%), while 33% of respondents replied they followed up within three years of project completion. A number of respondents (13%) mentioned that no follow-up took place or had been implemented after 1996, while others indicated that follow-up depended largely on funding and terms of projects.

Table 16: Timing of project follow-up.

TIMING	n (%)
Immediately	41 (67)
1 to 3 years	20 (33)
> 3 years	1 (2)
No follow-up takes place	8 (13)
Others	3 (5)

Success Rate of International Activities

The survey investigated the rate of success of international activities -- both programs and projects -- undertaken by institutions. Success was defined as client satisfaction expressed by minimal complaint and no request for corrective or supplementary training after student graduation.

As shown in Table 17, respondents generally evaluated their success rate on programs positively (23% for combined "very good" and "good" categories). A similar evaluation was found for projects, where combined "very good" and "good" categories amounted to 43%. Two respondents (4%) stated that their projects were either "poor" or "very poor".

Table 17: Success rates -- programs and projects.

SUCCESS RATE	PROGRAMS n (%)	PROJECTS n (%)	BOTH n (%)
Very good	8 (13)	12 (20)	24 (39)
Good	6 (10)	14 (23)	4 (7)
Moderate	4 (7)	3 (5)	0 (0)
Poor	0 (0)	1 (2)	0 (0)
Very poor	0 (0)	1 (2)	0 (0)

International Performance Evaluation

The survey also examined participation in the formal evaluation of international education performance of institutions, both from a Canadian perspective, and that of international clients. As presented in Table 18, four groups emerged as major evaluators of the performance exhibited by institutions in international endeavours. First was the administration of the institution -- reported by 64% of respondents, second were international clients involved in the evaluated activity (61%); third was the international department itself (54%), and, fourth, Canadian federal agencies (51%). Distant followers were international students, foreign governments involved -- both reported by less than 40% of respondents, and business/industry and provincial/territorial governments (each 12% or less).

Intent of International Education at the Institutional Level

As shown in Table 19, numbers of respondents across categories have increased perceptibly over time. Most noticeable for the first period, was that no respondent identified trade expansion, partnership with Canadian business, or offsetting staff reduction as an intent of international activities. Responses received by these "intents" since 1986: 25%, 44% and 12% respectively.

Other areas where considerable change has occurred over time are partnership with foreign business, which grew from 2% to 49% over the three periods; revenue

Table 18: Evaluators of international education performance.

EVALUATORS	**n (%)**
International Education Department/Unit	33 (54)
Administration	39 (64)
Provincial/Territorial international agencies	5 (8)
Federal international agencies	31 (51)
Canadian business/industry	7 (12)
International students graduated from programs	24 (39)
International clients involved in projects	37 (61)
Foreign governments in client countries	15 (25)
Industry collaborators in client areas	6 (10)

Table 19: Intent of international education at institutional level by period.

INTENT	**1960 - 1970** **n (%)**	**1971 - 1985** **n (%)**	**1986 - present** **n (%)**
Expand trade	0 (0)	0 (0)	15 (25)
Partnership with Canadian business	0 (0)	3 (5)	27 (44)
Partnership with foreign business	1 (2)	6 (10)	30 (49)
Generate revenue	3 (5)	12 (20)	50 (82)
Internationalize institution's curriculum	1 (2)	5 (8)	45 (74)
Internationalize education in foreign countries	1 (2)	3 (5)	14 (23)
Meet federal commitments	2 (3)	5 (8)	8 (13)
Meet provincial/territorial commitments	1 (2)	2 (3)	4 (7)
Offset staff reduction at institution	0 (0)	1 (2)	7 (12)
Provide humanitarian assistance	2 (3)	8 (13)	19 (31)
Provide staff development	2 (3)	19 (31)	52 (85)
Others	0 (0)	0 (0)	3 (5)

generation increasing from 5% to 82%; internationalization of institutional curricula witnessing a growth from 2% to 74%; internationalization of education in foreign countries exhibiting a growth of 21%; meeting government commitments which showed a combined increase of 15%; humanitarian assistance increasing from 3% to 31%; and staff development which jumped from 3% to 85%. Since 1986, 5% of respondents also mentioned that cultural solidarity, support of pedagogy and sharing educational experience were intents of their international activities.

International Student Demographics

The study sought information about the geographic origin of international students, categories of international students found in Canada, number of international students over time, types of credentials obtained, and timing of follow-up of international graduates.

Geographic Origin of International Students

Table 20 documents the origin of international students (excluding landed immigrants) in institutions by period. As shown, there has been a marked increase in geographical representation over time, although percentages were all small for the period 1960 to 1970.

Regions of high representation for 1971 to 1985 were South East Asia (30%), Caribbean (25%), and Africa (23%). Since 1986, these regions have maintained a strong representation, with 64%, 39% and 59% respectively. Others, however, have experienced a perceptible increase in levels of representation. Most obvious among these are South America -- which combined with Central America -- was reported by 74% of respondents, China (49%), India (33%) and Eastern Europe (30%). Under the category "others", respondents also indicated that some of their students originated from the Middle-East, USA, Japan, Korea, Hong Kong, Taiwan, and Western Europe (mostly France in the case of French speaking institutions).

Table 20: Geographic origin of international students by period.

ORIGIN	1960 - 1970 n (%)	1971 - 1985 n (%)	1986 - present n (%)
Caribbean	2 (3)	15 (25)	24 (39)
China	1 (2)	8 (13)	30 (49)
Eastern Europe	1 (2)	4 (7)	18 (30)
Africa	2 (3)	14 (23)	36 (59)
India	1 (2)	6 (10)	20 (33)
Central America	1 (2)	6 (10)	23 (38)
South America	1 (2)	7 (12)	22 (36)
Oceania	0 (0)	3 (5)	4 (7)
South East Asia	1 (2)	18 (30)	39 (64)
Others	0 (0)	5 (8)	15 (25)

Categories of International Students in Canada

The survey categorized international students found in Canadian institutions into three distinct groups: (a) students attending the institution within the framework of international projects, (b) individuals sponsored by agencies or governments, and © individuals registering as international clients paying their own fees. These categories were respectively reported by the following percentages of respondents: (a) 26%, (b) 26%, and © 71%. Responses supported the fact that it is generally the practice among international students in Canada to enroll as fee-paying individuals. Findings related to categories of international students in Canadian institutions were further corroborated by 74% of respondents stating that international students frequented institutions as individual clients.

Number of International Students Over Time

As shown in Table 21, for the period of 1960-1970 only 10% of institutions had international students, this percentage grew to 34% over the next period, and continued to increase since 1986 (82%) -- attesting to the fact that Canadian institutions were well attended by international students.

Table 21: Number of international students by period.

	1960 - 1970		1971 - 1985		1986 - present	
# Students	n	%	n	%	n	%
0	55	90	40	66	11	18
1-10	4	7	3	5	6	11
11-20	0	0	1	2	4	7
21-50	1	2	4	7	8	14
51-200	1	2	7	11	14	23
300-1,000			0	0	6	10
>1,000			6	10	9	15

During the first period, numbers of students were modest: no institution had more than 200 students, 4% had more than 20, and 7% had an international population of between 1 and 10. Respondents since 1986 for the various levels of population were well distributed, with a slight peak of 23% of institutions catering to between 51 and 200 international students. The period since 1986 also exhibited the largest increase in percentage of institutions reporting more than 300 international students compared to previous periods.

Credentials Obtained by International Students

For all three periods, respondents indicated they used three types of credentials: standard diplomas, standard certificates, and grade statements (Table 22). The number of institutions issuing these credentials has grown steadily. In addition to the mentioned credentials, international diplomas or certificates have also been issued since 1986. By definition, standard credentials are those customarily obtained by Canadian students successfully completing programs, while international ones are credentials received by international students enrolled in custom programs. These custom programs are designed to meet narrow, specific needs of international clients.

Table 22: Credentials received by international students by period.

CREDENTIALS	1960 - 1970 n (%)	1971 - 1985 n (%)	1986 - present n (%)
Standard diploma	6 (10)	19 (31)	41 (67)
Standard certificate	3 (5)	14 (23)	38 (63)
International diploma or certificate	0 (0)	0 (0)	8 (14)
Grade statements	4 (7)	10 (16)	28 (46)
Others	0 (0)	3 (5)	12 (20)

The majority of respondents (70%) indicated that international diplomas or certificates are not equivalent to standard ones and typically have little or no currency in the Canadian educational/occupational markets.

In the current period (1986-present), reported credential distribution was as follows: standard diplomas (67%), standard certificates (63%), grade statements (46%), and international diplomas or certificates (14%). Although some respondents reported they issued "other" credentials, they provided no descriptions.

Joint ventures and Jointly Endorsed Credentials

The survey also sought information about partnerships between Canadian and foreign institutions, as well as about issuance of joint credentials to international students. These credentials were defined as diplomas or certificates issued jointly with, or by a partner institution in the South. Responses revealed that 56% of institutions participated in partnerships with educational establishments abroad. Data also revealed that 77% of Canadian institutions did not issue joint credentials, and 61% had no intention of doing so in the foreseeable future.

Follow-up of International Graduates

The study investigated the timing at which international graduate follow-up occurs. Here, follow-up meant a formal process whereby levels of satisfaction and progress of graduated international students were investigated. "Graduated" referred to students who completed a program of studies and received official credentials. As noted in Table 23, follow-up occurred either immediately (39%) or did not take place (31%).

Table 23: Timing of international graduates follow-up.

TIMING	n (%)
Immediately	24 (39)
1 to 3 years	13 (21)
> 3 years	0 (0)
No follow-up takes place	19 (31)
Others	4 (7)

A smaller percentage of respondents (21%) also indicated that follow-up occurred between one and 3 years after graduation. Respondents also commented, under "others", that they followed different timing (three and six months, nine and 24 months, annually, etc.), that they adopted the practice recently (after 1995), or that they contemplated its implementation.

Marketing/Promotion of International Services

Respondents were asked two questions concerning marketing and promotion of international services. The first question dealt with levels of marketing reactivity / proactivity, the second with auxiliary initiatives for promotion of services, levels of promotion, and future policy stance to international activities.

Marketing Strategy

Absence of strategy or reliance on reactive practices characterized the 1960-1970 period (Table 24). This tendency changed over time, as indicated by 12% of respondents reporting proactivity in their marketing for 1971-1985. Proactivity continued to grow in institutions since 1986 as shown by a 72% response. Although proactivity increased, 46% or respondents continued to report reactivity in international education and 12% stated they did not have a marketing strategy.

Those who reported proactivity mentioned they used agents for recruiting international students, targeted specific market niches, studied economic and political factors impacting on student availability and recruitment, attended educational recruitment fairs and trade forums, joined delegations traveling overseas, advertised in foreign papers and study abroad journals, utilized embassy and consulate contacts, travelled abroad for marketing purpose, and used overseas representatives.

Table 24: Marketing strategy by period.

STRATEGY	1960 - 1970 n (%)	1971 - 1985 n (%)	1986 - present n (%)
None	4 (4)	6 (10)	7 (12)
Reactive	2 (3)	17 (28)	28 (46)
Proactive	0 (0)	7 (12)	44 (72)

Auxiliary Initiatives

Respondents indicated they employed the services of overseas agents (62%), typically nationals of the countries where marketing of services is contemplated (Table 25). Respondents also reported their use of web-sites for promotional purpose (71%). When asked if all institutional programs were promoted equally, 77% of respondents answered negatively while 23% responded affirmatively. In addition, 62% of respondents stated their institutions contemplate policy changes to international education. These changes were prompted by the need to adapt to new international realities, adjust to changed institutional funding contexts, accommodate on-going change process, achieve greater effectiveness, comply with ISO 9000 standards, and reflect restructuring.

Respondent Opinions

More qualitative in nature than the preceding ones, this section of the survey provided an arena for respondents to express their personal opinions. It sought to obtain respondent perception of how well international education was organized/coordinated at various levels, of Canadian postsecondary college and vocational/technical education, their forecast for such education for the next ten or twelve years, what Canada's strengths and weaknesses -- present and future -- were in this field, what obstacles would limit growth of international education, opportunities that might arise, and which geographical region(s) should become the focus of Canadian international activities.

Table 25: Auxiliary initiatives.

	YES		NO	
ITEM	**n**	**%**	**n**	**%**
Foreign agents	38	62	23	38
Web-site	43	71	18	30
Equality of program promotion	14	23	47	77
Policy changes	38	62	23	38

Status of Organization and Coordination Levels of International Education

Some respondents considered international education to be well organized and coordinated at the institutional level (20%), but few at local (12%), provincial / territorial (8%) and national (5%) levels (Table 26). No respondent deemed organization and coordination of international education at the international level to be "very good".

Percentages were higher for the "good" category, where institutional organization / coordination received 26% of the answers, local 16% , provincial / territorial 15%, national 10% and international 7%. Respondents found international education to be "moderately" well organized / coordinated -- as attested by close to 30% responses across all levels. Moderate satisfaction notwithstanding, 10% of respondents rated the institutional level as either "poor" or "very poor", 31% gave the same rating to the local level, 32% to the provincial / territorial one, 38% to the national level, and 44% to the international.

Table 26: Organization and coordination levels of international education.

LEVEL	Very poor n (%)	Poor n (%)	Moderate n (%)	Good n (%)	Very good n (%)
Institutional	1 (2)	5 (8)	19 (31)	16 (26)	12 (20)
Local	5 (8)	14 (23)	17 (28)	10 (16)	7 (12)
Provincial / Territorial	7 (12)	12 (20)	21 (34)	9 (15)	5 (8)
National	9 (15)	14 (23)	22 (36)	6 (10)	3 (5)
International	11 (18)	16 (26)	20 (33)	4 (7)	0 (0)

Personal Rating of Institution Performance in International Education

When asked to provide their personal rating of their own institution's performance in international education by period, respondents indicated they were typically more pleased than less pleased with performance (Table 27). This level of satisfaction can be more readily seen in percentages related to the period after 1986, where 26% responded that performance was "very good" and 54% "good".

Table 27: Personal rating of institution performance in international education by period.

RATING	1960 - 1970	1971 - 1985	1986 - present
Very poor	1 (2)	1 (2)	1 (2)
Poor	2 (3)	3 (5)	3 (5)
Average	3 (5)	13 (21)	10 (16)
Good	2 (3)	13 (21)	33 (54)
Very Good	0 (0)	2 (3)	16 (26)

Sixteen percent of respondents considered institution performance in the field to be "average" , while 7% perceived it to be either "poor" or "very poor". As indicated in Table

27, figures for all categories experienced a steady increase over time.

Rating of Canadian College and postsecondary Technical Education

As shown in Table 28, the majority of respondents considered current Canadian college and postsecondary education to be either "very good" or "good" -- the two categories combined accounting for 94%. When asked to forecast what this education would be like between now and 2010, 87% of respondents gave high ratings. Only a small percentage rated quality of college and postsecondary education as "moderate" -- both currently, and as a future projection -- and no respondent rated it as either "poor" or "very poor".

Table 28: Rating of Canadian college and postsecondary technical education.

RATING	Presently n (%)	Now to 2010 n (%)
Very good	32 (53%)	26 (43%)
Good	25 (41%)	27 (44%)
Moderate	3 (5%)	5 (8%)
Poor	0 (0%)	0 (0%)
Very Poor	0 (0%)	0 (0%)

Strengths, Weaknesses and Opportunities

The survey sought to obtain respondents perception of what Canadian international education's current strengths and weaknesses were, as well as what they would be between the present and 2010. In addition, the survey also asked respondents to identify areas of upcoming opportunities in international education. Information received was qualitative rather than quantitative and exhibited a high degree of similarity for both the current and future period.

Strengths:

Among identified strengths, quality of skills taught, curriculum, variety of programs, as well as flexibility and ability to respond quickly figured prominently.

Respondents also emphasized that Canadian international education was delivered at a competitive cost, more useful to the South than theoretical training, delivered in smaller class size than in universities, and provided in a safe and clean environment by highly qualified staff. Respondents considered Canada's reputation as a good international citizen, access to the USA, political correctness, neutrality and bilingualism / multiculturalism to be valuable assets. In addition, they also perceived the ability to deliver curricula via distance education, and industry/education partnerships as strengths. With specific regards to the present-2010 period, respondents indicated that expertise in leading-edge technologies, information and communication, as well as globalization of curricula and industry partnerships would be recognized as Canadian strengths.

Weaknesses:

Respondents mentioned that increasing educational costs had to be passed on to students, impacting adversely on Canada's ability to compete for international students. In the same context, they expressed concern that shrinking government funding for domestic students would result in decreasing academic staff and resources for international pursuits. Respondents also stressed that, if revenue generation was the primary motivation for engaging in international activities, it would have a detrimental effect on inter-institutional cooperation.

Lack of serious financial commitments by the various levels of government was also identified as a major weakness, as was the absence of national guidance, coordination and marketing of international undertakings. Such absence leads to a low degree of standardization of educational offerings. Many also pointed at the cumbersome foreign student visa application/issuance process as a major bottleneck in the system. Some felt that Canadians too often acted as amateurs in international ventures and did not compare favourably to OECD nations. Respondent also felt that limited degree-granting in Canadian colleges and postsecondary technical institutions was a weakness.

Upcoming Opportunities:

Respondents identified the following areas of opportunities: ESL, more involvement in partnerships with industry and business, active participation in software training, distance education and utilization of virtual campuses, information and communication technologies, and avionics. Possible obstacles to taking advantage of these opportunities were identified as lack of financial resources, lack of marketing strategies, poor coordination of efforts at the provincial/territorial and national levels, restrictive trade and educational practices and policies, cumbersome student visa processes, shortage of human resources, excessive bureaucratization and lack of recognition of international education by educational administrators.

Comments

The last section of the survey "Comments", gave respondents an opportunity to provide, in a narrative manner, any further suggestions they deemed important to the future of international education. This section also provided space for respondents to make comments about the survey and the manner in which it was conducted.

Suggestions about International Education

The fact that all Canadian schools were at the mercy of Immigration Canada and consulates worldwide re-emerged as a concern. Respondents felt that until students experience an easier visa application process, they will continue to go elsewhere. They suggested Canada revisit the issue of student visa for the purpose of making the application and granting processes more responsive. Also related to facilitating the task of international students was mention of the need to better articulate credit transferability across institutions. Respondents pointed out, however, that such articulation presupposed better general planning and a nationally centralized coordination of educational efforts. This improved articulation, according to many, should start at the level of inter-institutional communication.

As for involvement of organizations, one respondent advised to maintain and support CIDA, while revamping or eliminating ACCC and CBIE, as they have become "middle men" skimming off administrative funds and competing with the very agencies they are supposed to serve.

Respondents also expressed the need to maintain a humanitarian focus rather than a cost-plus focus, and to do so in a climate providing Canadians (staff and students) with international and cross-cultural experience. Others mentioned that more education/business partnerships should be fostered and that niche marketing was of paramount importance in a world of ever-increasing competition. Many reported the need for increased proactivity.

Some respondents stated that educational administrators needed to be educated as to international opportunities and how to develop them. They also identified the need for local and provincial recognition of the social economic benefits of internationalization and the potential to develop trade relationships essential to Canadian survival.

Comments on Survey

Comments provided by respondents about the survey itself were generally positive and encouraging. Many welcomed the opportunity to give input, and several commented that this was the first survey of this nature they had an opportunity to partake in. Several comments, however, deserve addressing specifically.

First, one respondent mentioned that the survey seemed to be tailored on the assumption that institutions had an international department. At first glance, this might have appeared to be the case. It should be remembered, however, that one question asked specifically if the institution had a international education department or not -- not ruling out the latter possibility. Many questions then followed soliciting information about this department, if its existence had been reported. As it turned out, virtually all institutions had some sort of department or unit whose sole responsibility was precisely to handle international education activities.

Second, two respondents commented that survey questions did not always address well their institutional realities, although they admitted that most did. In a study such as this one it was impossible to anticipate all possible institutional realities and their idiosyncrasies. It was, consequently, reasonable to expect some limited applicability differences across institutions.

Several respondents mentioned that responding to the survey required more time than the thirty minutes indicated in its introduction. The survey had been pilot tested with seasoned specialists and a response length of about thirty minutes seemed appropriate in light of these preliminary steps. Notwithstanding this estimate of response length, it is possible, even likely that others without comparable experience would have required more time to do justice to the survey. This would be particularly true for institutions which have witnessed significant staff turn-over. Respondent comments related to response time were well taken.

Lastly, one respondent stated the survey exhibited bias towards colleges and postsecondary technical institutions. This is not surprising, as this study focused on this specific sector of Canadian higher education and had never pretended to investigate other areas. It must be mentioned, as well, focus limitation had been communicated in the introduction to the survey and in two letters previously sent to respondents.

Summary

The survey showed that respondents had generally little or no international experience previous to their joining educational institutions. It also revealed that, although international education practitioners were well educated and had typically completed graduate studies, few had formal training in international affairs or inter-cultural issues. Education reported was heavily concentrated in disciplines of education and business. Similarly, respondents indicated little or no knowledge of foreign languages relevant to international education pursuits.

Institutions were generally founded between 1961 and 1970, and most of their international education departments had been established since 1981. The general practice, among institutions, was for administration to appoint institutional staff to international duties, instead of selecting them via open competition and according to performance criteria. Respondents considered cross-cultural abilities, practical knowledge, and academic abilities to be important. They also viewed previous international experience as being relatively useful for personnel working overseas.

Generally, institutions had a department devoted to the sole purpose of handling international undertakings. This department generally operated on a cost-recovery basis, and those reporting other means of funding indicated they contemplated cost-recovery implementation. The majority of respondents mentioned that at their institutions international education was a secondary, not a primary activity. Respondents identified facilitation of economic globalization, formation of human capital, modernization, promotion of economic growth, and sale of Canadian goods and services abroad as important functions of international education.

Major geographical areas of international activities and student origin were initially Africa and the Caribbeans, Latin America, and, more recently, South-East Asia and China. Respondents reported major disciplinary concentration of international education in miscellaneous forms of engineering, business, computing and information management, and ESL. In general, international students participated in regular programs and received credentials identical to those obtained by their Canadian peers.

Over time, enrollment in programs and participation in projects increased steadily. Reported project functions were: curriculum development, human resources development, training trainers, provision of technical assistance, completion of needs analyses, evaluation of programs, and teaching students abroad. At the institutional level, intent of international education were summed up as revenue-generation, internationalization of curricula, meeting government commitments, staff development, and -- to a lesser degree -- humanitarian assistance.

An absence of strategy or reliance on reactive practices characterized the period 1960-1970. This tendency changed over time, as indicated by respondents reporting proactivity in their marketing for 1971-1985. Proactivity continued to grow in institutions since 1986. Respondents indicated that international education was well organized / coordinated at the institutional level but poorly at the national and international level. Congruently, they also mentioned the international performance of their institutions were good.

Respondents believed Canadian education had the following strengths: quality of skills taught, variety of programs, well-developed curriculum, flexibility and competitive pricing. They perceived that Canada was politically-correct and neutral, had a strong network of industry/education partnerships, and was able to deliver curricula via distance education. They anticipated opportunities in ESL, software training, distance education, avionics and information and communication technologies. They also saw increase in industry/education partnerships as a beneficial development. Respondents, however, identified weaknesses in Canadian international education, chief among them, were: lack of financial commitment on the part of the various levels of government to international education, absence of national guidance in international endeavours, shrinking budgets, and existence of a cumbersome foreign visa application/issuance process.

CHAPTER VI -- DISCUSSION

Preamble

The purpose of Chapter VI is to discuss findings from interviews and the survey -- as reported in Chapters IV and V, and to examine them in light of theories and secondary empirical evidence presented in the literature review conducted in Chapter II. Although research instruments did not directly address ideological issues, inferential analysis of findings revealed that Canadian international education exhibited a particular orientation. Until recently, the predominant influence exercised on international education came from modernization and human capital theories, both of which were linked to classical political economy. In the last few years, however, neo-liberal/neo-classical thoughts linked directly to classical political economy have gained in importance and currently influence the nature of human capital and, indirectly, the forms and types of international education Canada provides to its foreign clients.

Fundamental Assumptions

Respondents

Careful analysis of the data revealed that respondents generally took for granted specific paradigms and assumptions. These were rooted in modernization and human capital theories and, more recently, in neo-liberal thoughts. As such, respondents did not pay particular attention to ideological, social and ethical issues related to international education; perceived international education as occurring in a deficit climate; assumed that development of human capital automatically lead to economic growth; thought that, for the most part, industry/education partnerships were potentially beneficial to all involved; saw international education as a suitable vehicle to promote trade and sale of Canadian goods abroad; and viewed educational entrepreneurship as a natural outcome of contemporary realities.

Overlooking alternative paradigms, such as -- for example -- grass root development, indigenous epistemologies, provision of popular education, social reformation or revolutionary practices and not questioning assumptions was not interpreted by the researcher as a conscious or deliberate decision on the part of respondents. It was perceived as a natural result of the cultural, professional, educational and ideological contexts of which respondents were products.

Interviews and survey findings confirmed the presence of these ideological and theoretical stances. Assumptions emerged embedded in answers rather than as expressions of conscious articulation. Respondent did not question the superiority of Canadian knowledge and postsecondary technical education system. Although answers did not necessarily articulate outright Canadian superiority, they described and understood educational exchanges between Canada and the South as occurring within a deficit climate consistent with that encountered in modernization: Canada had the answers, developing countries did not. Notwithstanding the fact that respondents were sensitive, qualified, educated individuals, Northern cultural views of development conditioned their answers and assumptions. Their stance in this context was invariably modernist and neo-liberal. Many respondents also assumed a liberal humanitarian stance without considering its nineteenth century charitable reformist orientation.

Since client nations were typically less developed or industrialized, respondents assumed that economic development and industrialization following the Canadian/Northern experience were desirable goals. Consequently, they did not mention nor discuss equally arguable models of development based on indigenous epistemologies, social reform, revolutionary strategies, or other suitable alternatives. Little doubt existed, therefore, as to the modernization orientation of Canadian postsecondary technical education, and of the influence neo-liberal ideology has exercised on it in recent years.

In close adherence to modernization theory, respondents assumed that increasing the population's productive skills was a major priority. Significance of such skills was also found in the importance placed by Canadian providers on technical education. Respondents saw the creation of human capital as an indispensable component of economic growth. Placing priority on human capital and practical education exhibited congruency with both modernization and neo-liberalism

Technical education -- of the variety Canada makes available to its national and international clients -- has ties with specific views of society, capitalism, the state, democracy and knowledge. Responses revealed a close link between college and technical education and a modernist / neo-liberal understanding of society, capitalism, the state, democracy and knowledge.

Researcher

The researcher held two fundamental assumptions throughout the interpretation of interviews and survey findings. First, he assumed that although modernization, human capital and neo-liberal thought were prominent in Canadian international education, alternative strategies and ideological/theoretical orientations could yield different -- and perhaps better -- outcomes. Second, the researcher assumed that institutions and practitioners involved in international education should be aware of these alternate strategies and ideological/theoretical orientations and well versed in their application.

Relevancy of Survey to Institutions

The survey exhibited relevancy to institutions, as only ten of them indicated they did not participate in international education at this time. Furthermore, most of these ten institutions indicated they were contemplating international involvement in the foreseeable future. This indication confirmed that virtually all Canadian institutions were either currently involved in international education or would soon be.

The survey was of significance for it provided information which had not previously been the object of research and yielded insight in: (a) nature of international education practitioners (experience, education, and languages); (b) institution demographics (year of foundation, year international education department was established, location of establishment, size and population); (c) international education department (staffing, recruiting practices, funding and required skills); (d) international activities (reasons for involvement, functions of activities, geographical area of activity, disciplinary focus, functions of programs and projects, follow-up, success rate, evaluation and joint ventures); (e) international students (origin, categories, credentials obtained, and graduate follow-up); (f) miscellaneous aspects of international education (marketing, auxiliary initiatives, organization and coordination, strengths, weaknesses, opportunities, and respondent personal opinions).

International Education Practitioners

International Experience

Survey findings pointed to a trend in respondent international experience. Upon being hired by institutions, respondents had either no international experience, or one year or less. That is, the majority acquired international experience at their institution. Although hiring international education employees with little or no international experience may present advantages and disadvantages, the latter seemed to outweigh the former.

Gaining international experience while already in position at the institution presents the advantage of (a) knowing the institution well; (b) conforming to institutional and international practices prevailing at the institution; (c) conforming to these practices without distraction -- since alternatives are likely unknown; and (d) not having to pay salaries commensurate with experienced applicants. However, particularism of exposure and practices is also likely to limit understanding of the field and consideration of possible alternatives. There exists danger that particularism in international education could breed uni-dimensionality. This uni-dimensionality could limit depth and breadth of services and training an institution can provide, as well as hamper recognition of opportunities out of the scope of limited experience.

Education

Although educated, technically proficient and well prepared to work and teach at home, Canadian international education practitioners -- with a few exceptions -- were products of their own system. As such, most exhibited further uni-dimensionality: they were trained to function in the context of Northern realities. It would be a mistake for Canadian international education practitioners to arbitrarily claim excellence as international service providers since, by their own admission, most had limited training in non-Eurocentric education; cross-cultural cognitive psychology; alternative worldviews; industrial, pre-industrial and post-industrial societies' socio-political dynamics; history of colonialism, post-colonialism and neo-colonialism; and recognition and analysis of conflicting developmental paradigms. Absence of knowledge in the above-mentioned areas certainly represented a serious weakness. Assuming that the preparation received at home by Canadian educators equips them to work in the South further substantiates Canadian institutions' lack of understanding of the importance of cultural, historical and occupational differences.

Languages

Languages was another area where Canadian international practitioners -- as mentioned by some respondents -- fell short from being well prepared. Respondents indicated fluency in either English or French, with a significant number indicating bilingual fluency. Lack of fluency in foreign languages placed Canadian international education practitioners at a disadvantage on various levels. First, this lack of knowledge could impede or prevent proper communication while on overseas assignment or create the necessity for the costly services of interpreters. Second, the inability to function in languages other than English or French could be seen as the demonstration of little or no interest in other cultures, inability to learn another language, and protraction of colonial practices -- where the colonized had to learn the métropole's language (Altbach, 1971; Carnoy 1974; and Galeano, 1973). Although teaching English has been presented by some respondents as giving the South a tool to more effectively participate in world economics, it can as easily be seen as the manifestation of cultural, intellectual and educational imperialism (Appadurai, 1996; Baez, 1988; and Carnoy, 1974).

Lastly, lack of fluency in foreign languages might prevent Canadians from competing favourably with other world-class international education providers. Linguistic inadequacy, compounded with little or no training in foreign affairs, development and intercultural issues could result in handicaps and shortcomings many institutions would have difficulty to identify or recognize, let alone remedy.

Institution Demographics

Year of Foundation

The overwhelming majority of respondents reported their institutions had been created in the 1960-1970 period. This era coincided with the vocational/technical education boom in Canada and proliferation of colleges and postsecondary technical institutions mentioned in the literature. After this initial upsurge in educational activity in Canada, the number of institutions kept on increasing, but not at the same rapid pace. During the 1960-1970 period, developmental activities were invariably based on modernization and human capital assumptions.

The period also witnessed political independence of English and French colonies in Africa and the increasing need to replace departing expatriates by a qualified local workforce. This, in turn, directed a few Canadian institutions to make modest inroads in international education. Chronological coincidence between departure of British colonizers and emergence of Canadian postsecondary technical education in Africa was not tied by respondents to emergence of neo and internal colonialism in the region. The likelihood that Canada assumed a role formerly played by colonizers was not examined for possible implications. Despite some of their obvious differences, large consultancies conducted by Canadian expatriates overseas had nevertheless more than passing similarities with colonial activities -- such as provision of knowledge by outsiders, adherence to Northern models of cognition, delivery in foreign language, assumption of cultural deficit, and lack of control of the educational experience by recipients. These similarities were not addressed. In addition, respondents did not allude to the possible implications of creating new socio-occupational strata (technically skilled workforce) in heretofore colonial societies.

Considering the prevalent role played by modernization and human capital assumptions in Canadian educational assistance, it is difficult to take the reported ideological non-alignment of Canada at face value. Modernization and human capital theories, as well as neo-liberalism have been pillars of industrial capitalism expansion from the Second World War on. These theoretical stances have consistently reflected the United States' perception of what desirable development ought to be, and of who should *benefit* from it. Although the study did not specifically investigate Canada's purported non-alignment, respondents did not comment on it spontaneously. Absence of spontaneous comments in this area raises questions as to the level of awareness of ideological and political issues among international education practitioners.

Year of Establishment of International Education Departments

Although international education activities had already started on an ad hoc basis prior to 1970, it was during the 1971-1980 period -- when the majority of institutions were in their infancy -- that activities started to become organized and institutionalized. Many institutions failed to participate in international education because they had just been established, resources were limited, international goals were still unclear, and risks seemed to outweigh potential gains. Consequently, Canadian educators often opted for a wait-and-see strategy. In addition, administrators had to resolve the political and ethical issues of catering to Canadian and foreign students competing for seats in their institutions.

It was not until the 1980s that international education departments became a familiar entity in Canadian institutions. Essentially, international education had required a decade or more before being commonly found in establishments. Encouraged by the experience of success, institutions started to create dedicated departments to handle international activities.

Just as a lack of standardization and uniformity of working titles characterized international education practitioners, so it characterized labels under which newly-created departments came to be known. Lack of standardization and uniformity was attributable to the difficulty educational administrators experienced in locating these new departments in the institutional structure. These departments did not fit naturally into existing institutional pigeon holes, activities did not conform to the academic calendar, financing was not neatly contained in the sacrosanct fiscal year that institutions swore by, and nobody was well informed of the true nature of their activities, or well versed in their administration.

Consequently, each institution placed its international education department conforming to commonly held assumptions alluded to in earlier discussion. Ad hoc placement of international services across institutions can still be observed today, as evidenced by responses indicating responsibility for international activities as being the province of the Vice-President office, programs involved in the provision of services, international education department, community affairs or others. Difference in hierarchical placement, however, implied different levels of decision-making, power-distribution, access to resources and status. As a result, what one department was able to achieve in one institution was beyond the scope of another.

Location of Institution, City Size and Total Student Population

Reported location of institutions was congruent with the population density of the province where located and the province reputation for having an educated citizenry. As such, more institutions reported from large provinces such as Ontario and Quebec, as well as from less populated provinces such as Canadian instituions Alberta, British Columbia and New Brunswick -- whose residents have been identified by several studies and public polls as ardent consumers of educational services. Not only did these provinces have a higher number of institutions, they also had a higher number of respondents. City size reported gave an indication that colleges and postsecondary technical institutions are either located in localities of less than 50,000, or in cities with a population larger than 250,000. Reported total student population -- less than 10,000 students per institution -- was representative of Canadian realities in the non-university sector of postsecondary education.

International Education Department

Staffing

Seventy-five percent of institutions reported they had an international education department somewhere in their structures. Although the majority of reporting establishments had a total institutional staff complement as high as 1,000, and several between 1,001 and 2,000, they stated their departments had less than 5 full-time employees -- including clerical and associated support. Most respondents indicated their departments did not have sufficient staff to effectively tackle the tasks at hand. Short staffing had become more acute since budgetary cuts, the adoption of business models advocated by neo-liberals, and implementation of cost-recovery practices. To these realities were also added the often-mentioned lack of appreciation of international activities by most senior administrators.

Although some respondents might have viewed short staffing of international departments as an astute financial decision, the practice was congruent with the reported secondary or complementary status enjoyed by these departments. It also conformed with the lack of standardization and unification of titles and departments, and the varied placement of these departments throughout institutional structures. Reported recruiting and hiring practices also exemplified the secondary status enjoyed by international education in Canadian postsecondary establishments.

Recruiting and Hiring for International Activities

Although the initial intention of institutions was to select the best possible individuals for the task, recruiting and hiring for international education activities has decreased in ambition over time. Respondents stated that lack of sufficient selection time, absence of appropriate talents, convenience and institutional realities and culture were common reasons for changes in recruiting and hiring practices. Even though some respondents indicated competitive selection, the practice was to rely on appointment by administration. Regrettably, it would appear that these appointments were often effected on the basis of inappropriate criteria. Instead of hiring the best person for the task -- a practice that would benefit the institution, incumbents and international clients -- administrators often selected individuals with lower teaching loads, or whose positions may become redundant or abolished. Too often, experience, skills, knowledge, education, linguistic abilities and cultural compatibility had little to do in the selection process and valuable human resources were sacrificed to short-sighted expediency. This less-than-ideal selection process, combined with the secondary status that international education enjoyed at the institution level and the multi-faceted uni-dimensionality of most practitioners could place Canada's postsecondary institutions at a serious competitive disadvantage in the international market place.

Funding

Since 1986, Canadian institutions generally operated their international departments on a cost-recovery basis. Although a few respondents indicated they were not yet on cost-recovery basis, they contemplated this form of funding or were currently implementing it. From an administrative perspective, cost-recovery was an expedient way to alleviate problems related to budgeting for yet another department. This finding was consistent with Brodie (1996) and Marchak (1993) who attracted attention to neo-liberal political reformers imposition of business models on Canadian educational establishments. Since, under neo-liberalism, market forces were to be left uncurbed, institutions had little choice but to become entrepreneurial. In this context, international education departments were no longer simply permitted to break even, they were expected to make profit. This, as mentioned by respondents, was a far cry from Canada's initial stance vis-à-vis international assistance; indeed, the trend is recent and emerged after 1990 when neo-liberalism became the prevailing ideology.

Notwithstanding the fact that cost-recovery and profit-making might make sense and had appeal at the institutional level, these goals come with complex baggage often difficult for the ethical international education practitioner to sort out. First, cost-recovery and profit-making changed international education from an assistance endeavour to an entrepreneurial one -- thereby removing the humanitarian flavour of the undertaking (Adams & Salomon, 1985). Second, profit-making was directly related to solvency of clients -- the more solvent the client, the more profit the institution made, the more attractive the international undertaking became. The lure of profits could easily become the over-riding determinant of project selection or student acceptance -- effectively relegating some less-solvent clients to the rank of pariah of Canadian international education consumers. Third, although institutions were increasingly asked and expected to operate as partners in a team and engage in inter-institutional cooperation, they were forced, in a paradoxical fashion, to compete against each other for scant international education dollars.

Importance of Skills

In response to prioritizing the importance of certain skills for teachers of international students in Canada and Canadians on overseas postings, respondents rated the following as being of importance in both cases: practical knowledge, cross-cultural abilities, and academic skills. International experience, however, did not rate as high.

Practical knowledge and academic skills were obviously of paramount importance to education in the North or South. However, the practical knowledge and academic skills referred-to here were acquired and held from a Northern perspective. This finding is consistent with Altbach (1971) and Appadurai (1996) who stated that international assistance reflected Eurocentric epistemologies and models of cognition. This definite Northern orientation, at the very least, raised the issue of suitability of Canadian practitioner skills, knowledge and abilities relative to Southern contexts. Paradoxically, although many respondents reported cross-cultural abilities to be important, few had training in that area and, as discussed earlier, these abilities received scant consideration when recruiting and hiring.

International Education Activities

Primary Reason for Initial Involvement

Respondents mentioned that their institution initially became involved in international activities through personal and institutional interest, as well as through formal and informal foreign requests. Findings also indicated little or no official drive on the part of governments and related agencies. Although some respondents mentioned governmental involvement, their number was small. This early lack of governmental participation, coordination, support, articulation and, possibly, interest, continued to characterize Canadian international education, as was also lamented by respondents elsewhere in the survey in the context of Canada's ability to compete in the international arena. Canadian international education appeared to be a micro- rather than a macro-undertaking.

Importance of Specific Functions of International Education

When listing functions into two categories, one of a modernizing/economics nature (economic growth, formation of human capital, facilitating globalization and modernizing), and another of a humanitarian/social nature (promoting equality and redistributing income), responses indicated a clear tendency to cater to the first category. For Canadian international education practitioners and institutions, therefore, the undertaking was mainly instrumental rather than humanitarian. The revealed instrumental orientation was congruent with capitalist principles underlying modernization and, more recently, neo-liberalism (Barnet & Cavanagh, 1994; Calvert, 1993; and Marchak, 1993).

Major Geographical Areas of Involvement

South East Asia, China and Latin America (Mexico, and South and Central America combined) exhibited the highest concentrations of Canadian international education activities, especially since 1986. Here again, findings for the period revealed adherence to neo-liberal globalization practices: Canadian institutions were involved in Newly Industrialized Countries (NICs) of Asia (chiefly Thailand, Singapore, South Korea, Taiwan, the Philippines and Indonesia), and in areas falling under the North America Free Trade Agreement (NAFTA) or about to enter into some form of Pan American Free Trade Agreement -- such as Chile, Argentina and Brazil (Marchak, 1993).

Although these regions offered relative political stability to investors and educational entrepreneurs, their regimes were rarely progressive (Oxhorn, 1995; Todaro, 1986; and Van den Bergh, 1990), the workforce was not well organized to protect its interests, wages were low, working conditions were by all accounts oppressive -- especially in free economic zones (Alvazzi del Frate & Patrignami, 1995), and the profits of multi- and transnational corporations were maximized at great human costs (Barnet & Cavanagh, 1994; Bello & Rosenfeld, 1990; and Jenkins, 1987). There was little doubt, therefore, that Canadian international education -- perhaps unwittingly -- contributed to the establishment and refinement of what many perceive to be the unjust world division of labour (Barnet & Cavanagh, 1994; Bello & Rosenfeld, 1990; Holm & Sorensen, 1995; and Jenkins, 1987). It can also be argued that, in catering to the needs of off-shore capitalists by training a poorly-remunerated workforce abroad, Canadian international education also undermined occupational opportunities and rewards for workers at home (Marchak, 1993; and Gordon, 1996).

Disciplinary Focus of Provided Services

Findings revealed a disciplinary focus of provided services complementing the modernizing and globalizing needs of the above mentioned regions, and others. In other words, Canada trained human capital in geographical areas of high levels of production and minimum labour cost. As such, Canadian institutions provided the sort of training that made good economic sense from the perspective of those identifying training needs (rarely direct recipients). As pointed out by Barnet & Cavanagh (1994), Bornschier (1985) and Jenkins (1987), Northern experts with modernization views and representatives of TNCs and MNCs or their subsidiaries in the South typically articulated training needs on behalf of recipients.

Training provided, therefore, concentrated mostly in industrial and processing areas, as well as in business practices supporting these areas; the only modest exception related to health disciplines. Most of the training provided supported the concept of neo-liberal globalization and the continuous shift of production to areas of depressed wages where a technically qualified workforce needed to be created (Marchak, 1993). Also found, was training such as in civil or communication engineering which facilitated the creation and maintenance of networks and infrastructures necessary to move data and resources out of the South -- much like the British built Latin American railroads and trained local station personnel and engineers in the mid-1800s to more efficiently carry copper, coffee, cocoa and other cheaply-acquired resources to the metropole (Galeano, 1973; and Taussig, 1991).

Even in the most forgiving scenario, international education appeared as a cultural, intellectual and social undertaking of an imperialistic nature. Through programs and projects, Canadian institutions fashioned the South to the image of Canada and the USA. Foreign workers/students were expected to embrace a dominant foreign language, thereby devaluating the currency of their own tongues in a modern world (Altbach, 1971; and Carnoy, 1974); to respond to occupational and educational structures, stimuli, curricula, disciplines, models of cognition, systems of reward and levels of mobility that flow largely counter to their own; and to enthusiastically aspire to a Southern version of the consumer society (Abubakar, 1989; Baez, 1988; and Quijano, 1990).

Students in Programs

Respondents indicated that the majority of international students can be found in regular programs receiving regular credentials like their Canadian peers. Although some international students enrolled in special, custom or international programs of study, and received international credentials with no occupational currency in Canada, they did not represent the rule. These findings belied the often-heard educational folklore argument that international students received diluted forms of training and did not have to meet the same standards as their Canadian counterparts. Participation in regular programs raised another often-heard issue: foreigners competing for seats with Canadians whose taxes support the very educational system that may not have space to let them enroll. The practice was partially justifiable by referring to the economic attractiveness of large fee differentials levied from international students -- but validity of this justification remained limited.

The issue of cultural, educational and intellectual imperialism (Carnoy, 1974; and Tomlinson, 1991) surfaced again in relation to students in programs. If international students were enrolled in standard programs -- as indicated by respondents -- they were exposed to Canadian/Northern worldviews; social dynamics, conventions and expectations; teaching styles; languages; and competitive educational models. Imperialism could be perceived as more obvious in the case of international students exposed to Canadian training-the-trainers programs -- independent of the vehicle of delivery of such programs. Here, cultural and intellectual penetration reached new levels, as international students trained were expected, once they returned home, to become multipliers and diffusers of Northern educational ideas, paradigms, trends and goals -- simply treating foreign students as if they were Canadian (Carnoy, 1974; Tomlinson, 1991; and Quijano, 1990). Although Canadian educators likely had no conscious imperialistic desires and might not even perceive or admit that such Northern penetration occurred, foreign educators and intellectuals perceived it, as attested to by the large body of literature on the subject (Baez, 1988; Carnoy, 1974; Tomlinson, 1991; and Quijano, 1990) .

Functions of Program and Projects

Programs

Although international students attended programs that ran the whole gamut, from basic training to specialization and upgrading, perceptible trends could be observed. Initially, international education focussed on basic training. This was attributable to specific technical needs, typically in former colonies. However, as these and other Southern countries developed increased technical proficiency, a shift in program consumption occurred. This shift consisted of a significant increase in the number of students requiring technical specialization and upgrading with students already having completed basic technical education in their countries of origin. The trend of coming to Canada for specialization and upgrading invites a simple question: who will consume what sort of Canadian education once the South has achieved technical training capacity at all levels -- including specialization and upgrading? If Canadian educational institutions want to stay in the international game they will have to stay ahead of the South. Maintaining technical advantage on a significant scale might prove challenging considering the productive capacity of the South and educational activity already occurring in the region.

Reported length of programs was consistent with curricular structures commonly found in Canadian educational institutions and with types of credentials international students had been reported to obtain. Concentration was found in programs of less than three month duration or in those lasting two years or more. The short variety likely reflected custom international programming, while the longer period corresponded to regular diploma programming -- typically of two years for colleges and postsecondary technical institutions.

Projects

According to responses, it became obvious that projects were invariably focussed on perceived weaknesses of the South as identified by Northern experts or local bureaucrats trained abroad. Projects centred around curriculum development, human resources development, program planning, needs analysis, and training-the-trainers -- all congruent with modernization (Larrain, 1994; and Todaro, 1986) and human capital theories (Harbison, 1973), and all providing further mechanisms of penetration for Northern imperialism in its many forms (Carnoy, 1974; Tomlinson, 1991; and Quijano, 1990). The total number of projects per institution grew from 1960 and peaked around 1986.

Lengthwise, projects exhibited a trend identical to that found in the case of programs. That is, many were shorter than three months or longer than two years. Such trend could perhaps be explained by the fact that, as indicated by some respondents, time-limited projects were often looked upon as short-term staff development opportunities -- as it was difficult to release staff for much longer periods, while longer projects were regarded as good money-making ventures.

Project Follow-up

Respondents indicated that, in general, projects were followed-up immediately after completion. Others conducted follow-up between one and three years after project completion, and some mentioned that follow-up did not take place at all. Immediate follow-up certainly showed an institutional concern for instant assessment and identification of possible problems and complaints. At the same time, however, it might have been so immediate that few or none of the project-associated problems had time to manifest themselves. Consequently, assessments conducted at regular intervals over a long time period would yield a more accurate evaluation of projects.

The strategy of conducting follow-up between one and three years after project completion appeared to be the soundest of those reported. On the one hand, institutions did not rush into following up projects that were barely completed and still had to gain equilibrium, on the other hand they did not omit to follow-up. Years elapsed between project completion and follow-up would have allowed problems and flaws to emerge and appropriate remedial steps to be taken. One drawback with following up projects after several years was the possibility of losing track of foreign contacts and associates -- especially in regions of fast political turn-over and insecure positions. Lack of follow-up -- notwithstanding the reasons for this lack -- is reminiscent of practices often denounced in aid-critical literature. As pointed out by Adams & Salomon (1985), when neglecting to follow-up, assistance providers are open to the criticism of divesting themselves from all responsibilities once they have been paid for their services.

Success Rate

Reported success rate achieved in international activities were impressive. All but two respondents rated institutional success as either high or very high. If high ratings were not based on perception, but on facts, it was surprising that institutions considered international education to be a secondary activity and continued to endow it with little resources. If success was high, and that rating presumably also referred to financial success which was a part of overall success, why did international education not enjoy better recognition and support?

Assessing success in these situations may be problematic, as -- as reported -- it is complete formal evaluation seldom existed. It would be important to develop appropriate measurement tools to evaluate such aspects as success other than financial; determine who would report lack of success, and to whom; and decide who would be able to do something significant about such lack. This is all the more important when clients and providers are effectively separated by status, distance, language and protocol.

Evaluators of International Performance

As expected. respondents stated that the bulk of performance evaluation rested with the institution and its international education department. Next in importance to the evaluation process were foreign clients and federal international agencies -- in activities where the latter were involved. Findings indicated participation by all major stakeholders (department, administration, foreign clients and students, as well as foreign governments and Canadian provincial/federal agencies). What the survey did not investigate, however, was the respective decisional weight corresponding to the assessment conducted by these stakeholders or how these evaluations were conducted.

Intent of International Education at the Institutional Level

Respondents reported revenue-generation and institutional staff development as major intents of international education, followed by establishing partnerships with business and industry and internationalizing the curriculum. Humanitarian assistance, which was relegated to the role of an appendage, rated as much less important. These reported intents illustrated how far Canada has moved away from its original humanitarian assistance endeavours and how much, in recent years, the global neo-liberal market dictum impacted on the course followed by educational institutions (Brodie, 1996; and Marchak, 1993). The latter reality was particularly obvious in areas of revenue-generation, establishment of partnerships and internationalization.

Joint Educational Ventures and Mutually-Endorsed Credentials

Respondents reported that joint educational ventures and partnerships with institutions in the South were common, but the practice of granting mutually endorsed credentials was not. Granting of such credentials existed in few institutions however other institutions contemplated adopting the practice.

Although joint educational ventures and partnership of Northern and Southern institutions offered definite benefits to both, it could be argued they were not always entirely positive. The modernist / neo-liberal interpretation was that by engaging in such ventures and partnerships, institutions in the South benefitted from the experience and expertise of the North by getting a jump start in vocational/technical education, or rapidly improving local education via import of ready-made institutional structures, curricula, practices and equipment. However, critical scholars such as Baez (1988), Carnoy (1974) and Quijano (1990) perceived the same process as yet another form of penetration compounding imperialism already achieved by other means, and a near-direct transplant of the ways Northerners did things to a Southern context -- to which these ways were ill-suited (Adams & Salomon, 1985).

As for granting jointly-endorsed credentials, the practice was described as one whereby foreign institutions -- authorized to do so by Canadian institutions -- issued Canadian credentials or equivalent. In variations of this model, Canadian institutions could expect to receive royalties for their participation. In other words, the practice was akin to branch plant off-shore production found in some industries to maximize profits and minimize costs -- since foreign workers, in this case educators, receive lower wages

(Barnet & Cavanagh, 1994; Marchak, 1993; and Jenkins, 1987). The practice presented some questionable aspects: (a) although it would offer personal development, career opportunities and international experience to a small, select group of Canadian senior educational managers going overseas to set up branch plant institutions, it would not do so for educators -- since local employees assumed the task; (b) in a similar fashion, Canadian educators would no longer make individual financial gains by working abroad, although senior management would, and institutions would maintain or even increase profits via royalties; (c) keeping students in their home countries, arguably a positive step, would also prevent them from experiencing different occupational, social, economic and political realities, all of which should be integral parts of an international learning experience; and (d) since these students would stay home they would fail to contribute to their Canadian peers' international awareness. Since branch plant, off-shore education is a vehicle allowing effective profit-maximization and cost-reduction and, therefore, exhibits alignment with neo-liberal reductionist ideology, it is reasonable to expect its prevalence to increase in years to come as more institutions are driven by market economy.

International Students

Origin

Reported international student origin matched closely geographical regions of international activity. As such, respondents indicated that most students came from the Asian NICs (Thailand, Singapore, Indonesia, South Korea, Taiwan, the Philippines and others), China, Latin America, and post-Perestroika Eastern/Central Europe -- areas propitious to neo-liberal entrepreneurship (Bello & Rosenfeld, 1990; and Marchak, 1993), and activities of multi- and transnational corporations (Barnet & Cavanagh, 1994; Marchak, 1993; and Jenkins, 1987). In addition, a significant number of institutions indicated attendance by African students.

Categories and Numbers of Students

Respondents described the majority of international students as fee-paying students, not as a subsidized group, and certainly not as one generously supported by the Canadian purse. These students paid their own fees, and these fees were substantially higher than those paid by their Canadian peers.

The total number of foreign students increased over time and so did the number of international students per institution. The growth shown accelerated from decade to decade. Most noticeable were increases affecting institutions with large numbers of foreign students -- 300 or 1,000. Increases in institutions with fewer than 300 students occurred more evenly.

Canadian Credentials Obtained

Findings revealed that, as a norm, international students earned regular Canadian credentials. Most regular credentials were one-year certificates and two-year diplomas. In addition, institutions also granted custom international certificates as well as simple grade statements. International students were generally expected to perform like their Canadian counterparts, albeit at higher financial cost.

Follow-up of International Graduates

As was the case with project follow-up, respondents indicated that, in general, follow-up of international graduates occurred immediately -- practice showing genuine institutional concern for prompt assessment. Although immediate follow-up facilitated the process since graduates were still easily available, it could be judged premature since shortcomings in graduate education did not have sufficient time to manifest themselves.

Other respondents stated they conducted follow-up between one and three years after graduation, which appeared to be a sound practice. Years elapsed between graduation and follow-up would permit tracking students through their career paths and assessing how their Canadian training assisted them in their endeavours. After several years, however, there existed the possibility of losing track of graduates. As in project follow-up, complete lack of graduate follow-up cited is unacceptable and leaves institutions open to the serious criticisms alluded to in earlier discussion.

Miscellaneous

Marketing

Marketing at the institutional level was reported as virtually non-existent in the early years of international involvement. A limited number of respondents indicated that, in their institutions, it still was. Until recently, responding to existing international opportunities rather than creating them was the norm -- opportunities arose, institutions decided to pursue them. Although, at first, this reactivity might appear as lack of initiative -- and could indeed be, it might also have made sense in a context of humanitarian assistance. Indeed, it was customary for those requiring help to express their needs before assistance was rendered. It would have been uncommon for assistance providers to exhibit much proactivity, going from door to door searching for opportunities to assist. Under neo-liberalism, however, it did. The goal, now, was no longer to assist, but to make profit (Brannigan &Goldenberg, 1985; Calvert, 1993; and Marchak, 1993). In this educational context proactivity made sense for it helped increase profit.

Although a significant number of respondents reported that, in recent years, the level of institutional proactivity increased substantially, some were still reactive. Considering the effects of neo-liberal thoughts on education, government, budgets and market, respondents reporting reactivity or an absence of marketing strategy will likely have to adopt more aggressive practices or face being forced out of international pursuits.

Auxiliary Initiatives

Respondents also reported auxiliary initiatives related to marketing and promotion. Major initiatives included reliance on foreign agents to market service abroad, use of websites on the internet, and contemplation of policy changes to promote proactivity and more aggressive marketing. These initiatives, too, were reflective of entrepreneurial models (Brodie, 1996; and Marchak, 1993). The use of foreign agents, reported as being moderately common, was likely an attempt to maximize returns while minimizing costs. On the one hand, this practice had obvious merits. Employing local representatives was considerably more economical than sending Canadians abroad to do the same thing. Also, local agents were fluent in local languages, had valuable contacts and networks, and knew the system. On the other hand, their knowledge of Canadian education and institutions was likely superficial. Furthermore, it would be difficult for Canadian institutions to assess accurately the quality of service they obtained for their money in the area of overseas representation as they likely do not possess appropriate cultural, linguistic and social attributes to perform such assessment.

Most respondents indicated the use of a website as a promotional vehicle. Considering the present level of communication technology available to Canadian institutions, the practice will likely be shared by all in the near future. Admittedly, the internet was a practical and economical means for institutions to gain wide exposure at low cost. When it comes to international education, however, institutions should realize that the electronic highway is primarily a Northern convenience. Although ministries of education and other rare users in distant Southern countries might have limited and often unreliable access to the net, average citizens typically do not -- even in upper-middle classes. Cost and lack of infrastructures and communication networks (even a simple telephone line) often represent insurmountable obstacles. The extent of benefits derived from websites is, therefore, widely open to debate.

A significant number of respondents reported their institutions were contemplating a revision of policy stances to international education. The major reason for such activity related to improvement in marketing, proactivity, competition, programming flexibility, capture of markets and other goals intimately associated with educational entrepreneurship based on the neo-liberal business model.

Organization / Coordination of International Education

When asked for their opinion concerning the organization and coordination of international education at different levels (from international to institutional), respondents indicated that organization / coordination were best at the institutional level. As such, respondents consistently rated institutional organization / coordination of international activities as good, while they invariably gave national and international organization / coordination poor or very poor ratings. Respondents repeatedly lamented the absence of a capable national entity organizing and coordinating international education efforts on a federal scale. They believed this would improve Canada's ability to compete internationally while making more sense to international clients -- who now faced a myriad of disjointed systems barely understood by insiders, let alone outsiders shopping for educational services.

Personal Rating of Institution Performance and Canadian College and Postsecondary Technical Education

Respondents rated the international performance of institutions in a generally positive manner, and increasingly so since 1986. This perceptible improvement in rating likely reflects better department organization (most had now operated for awhile), recognition and wider support by Canadian international agencies and organizations, emergence of international education as a field in itself, emergence of the first generation of specialists, and improved North-South dialogue. Similarly, respondents exhibited a positive view of Canadian college and postsecondary technical education. Notwithstanding this positive view and many identified strengths, respondents recognized that Canadian education had weaknesses as well, and that serious obstacles stood in the way of international education.

Strengths, Weaknesses and Opportunities

Strengths

Respondents listed quality of skills taught, curricula, programming variety and flexibility, practicality of training, competitive pricing and Canada's success in multiculturalism as important strengths. Although skills taught and curricula have always been praised by Canadian educators, they always had a strong Northern flavour. They were never identified, selected or designed for people other than Canadians. Although provision of such skills and curricula to Canadians may have been fine, it was perhaps inappropriate for foreign students who would ultimately return to the South and work in a different cultural, social and occupation climate. It was, therefore, imprudent for institutions to assume that skills were simply transferrable across cultures and that curricula had universal applicability.

Programming variety and flexibility as well as practicality of training have long been characteristics of Canadian education. These characteristics received new emphasis in recent years with the fragmentation and re-packaging of traditional curricula in small, discrete combinable parts and modules, often supported by alternate delivery methods and distance education. In this context, education could be rapidly assembled in an almost endless variety to meet national and international client needs, and delivered almost anywhere, anytime. These attributes gained considerable currency in the existing educational climate steeped in neo-liberal ideology.

Respondents identified competitive pricing as a strength of Canadian international education. Although many respondents shared this belief, many also stated that, if subjected to many more budget cuts, this strength would soon disappear. Training costs would have to be passed on to international students, leading to a loss in competitiveness. Passing the cost on to international students would be congruent, however, with neo-liberal market dynamics, freedom of provider choice and exercise of rationality (Brannigan & Goldenberg, 1985; Calvert, 1993; and Marchak, 1993). Indeed, international students would now be free to consume whatever education they can afford, while the most astute Canadian educational entrepreneur would be able to provide it.

At home and abroad, Canada has long enjoyed the reputation for successful multiculturalism. Many respondents listed this achievement as contributing to the appeal the country has to international clients. Although there is no denying that Canada gave multiculturalism a place of choice in its national metanarrative, a First Nations, Québécois Français, or other marginalized view of the claimed multicultural achievements would likely be substantially different from the official one.

Upcoming Opportunities

Respondents identified three important areas of upcoming opportunities. These were: provision of training in ESL, use of distance education, and increase in partnerships with business and industry. Little doubt existed of the ability of Canadian institutions to deliver effective ESL training, or the need for learning the English language presently experienced by people in the South. Distance education, especially of the virtual campus variety has already been used in Canada by many institutions, some of which have even ventured in the international application of communication technologies. In addition, similar efforts exhibited by other institutions in this field indicated that, in a not too distant future most Canadian educational providers will rely on computerized distance education for national and -- in all likelihood -- international delivery. As for partnerships with business and industry, they, too, are likely to increase on the ground that institutions are continuously underfunded and attempt to align themselves closely with the business agenda.

However, increased provision and better articulation of ESL training could be perceived as yet another manifestation of cultural and linguistic imperialism by the North, and the continued devaluation of Southern languages for economically worthwhile pursuits (Altbach, 1971; and Carnoy, 1974). ESL, in this context, also assisted in technology transfer, process consisting largely in the sale of quasi-obsolescent or well-amortized technologies to marginal areas of the South where they can still yield satisfactory financial returns (Baez, 1988; Bornschier, 1985; Jenkins, 1987; and Lall, 1975). Dynamic and leading-edge sectors are kept in the North, thereby permitting further consolidation of uneven international power relations rooted in technological differences (Holm & Sorensen, 1995).

As many Canadian educators can confirm, distance education has achieved considerable prominence in educational circles over the last few years. Aside from the many claimed benefits of alternated delivery methods -- usually referred-to in terms of accessibility, catering to different learning styles, and better serving clients in a general sense of the word, the main political and corporate attraction to alternate delivery is intimately linked to the neo-liberal agenda.

Alternate delivery methods facilitate the capture of large markets over which delivery costs can be minimized and profits maximized. Distance education is a good vehicle to penetrate other countries and further spread an educational philosophy and a curricula widely laced with Northern views -- as evidenced by the worldwide use of the internet.

Partnerships with business and industry are often justified on the ground of assisting in providing these sectors with the manpower they require to better meet their production needs. Similarly, institutions often present these partnerships as vehicles providing students with exposure to leading-edge technologies and developments, as well as with opportunities for gaining an understanding of the real world -- thereby enhancing preparation for life after program completion.

Some of these arguments hold undeniable truth but are uni-dimensional -- that is, they rest on the unquestioned adoption of capitalist and neo-liberal ideologies and worldviews. Business and industry arguably require qualified employees. There is, however, danger that student needs remain ignored in the training thus far provided (Chomsky, 1989; and Illich, 1973).

It can be argued that institutions guided by business and industry sectors provide students with quality tools to serve but none to think (Baez, 1988; and Merani, 1983). From such perspective, it can hardly be said that current practical education prepares students for the best possible life after program completion. Even more debatable is the transplant of non-critical curricula to other societies where prospects for change and advancement relate more to critical abilities than limited technological prowess.

Weaknesses / Obstacles to Opportunities

Findings revealed that respondents perceived current weaknesses and obstacles to future opportunities to be of a similar nature. They widely mentioned increasing costs of education to international students and the continual dwindling of staff complements, resources and funding under external pressures as serious and growing weaknesses of Canadian international education. Although respondents did not explicitly link causes for these weaknesses to neo-liberalism, their description clearly identified a strong relationship to it. Calls for increased competition, doing more with less, reducing educational budgets, focusing on instrumentality and adopting business strategies all emerged from respondent comments. It is likely that, unless federal and provincial governments change their ideology unexpectedly, this weakness will reach unprecedented proportions. The proposed neo-liberal strategy is to team with business and industry on international ventures. This strategy could be perceived as one offering poorly-funded institutions an alternative, it can, however, also be perceived as a vehicle facilitating further penetration and control of foreign economies by Canadian and transnational capitalists, under the integument of educational pursuits.

Several respondents indicated deep concerns about the profit-making trend currently sweeping international education. They perceived such trend to be detrimental to the spirit of the endeavour as well as to anticipated inter-institutional cooperation. They felt that in the long run, Canadian institutions stood to lose more than what they could gain. They believed there was more to international education than making a dollar, and still thought that international education should be assistance.

Another important weakness reported was the absence of organization, coordination, support, funding and -- perhaps -- interest on the part of the Canadian government in international education. This weakness is a carry-over since the early days of international activities when interest sprung from personal and institutional initiatives rather than from well-organized macro efforts. Rightfully so, respondents pointed out that this lack of government participation placed Canada at a serious competitive disadvantage in the international arena, as most other international education providers have centralized education systems and enjoy a large measure of government support. Centralization, as lamented by respondents, has not been the case in Canada.

Respondents also reported that government disinterest in international education was reported had considerable and diverse consequences for related activities. First, it meant insufficient or no funding. Second, it impeded implementation of a uniform and well-articulated marketing strategy, especially when educators actively attempted to promote their services abroad. Third, it prevented appropriate national recognition of significant achievements. Fourth, it protracted a climate where some organizations, such as ACCC, CBIE, and AUCC competed with CIDA and against each other rather than cooperate among themselves and support CIDA. Fifth, it protracted the existence of a cumbersome and frustrating student visa application process. Most respondents viewed this application process as a huge impediment to increased influx of international students into Canada. They also stated that the longer this system is maintained and the more agile Canada's competitors visa processing is, the more the country will lose international students.

Summary

Respondents perceived Canadian international education to be a good vehicle for the South to catch up in the economic race and, as a corollary, in its race towards democracy and better standards of living. Not only was Canada able to assist in these areas, but it provided international education at a competitive cost and did so in a politically neutral manner. Curricula and modes of delivery found in international education were generally similar to those encountered in Canadian education.

Although practitioners were well educated for level of position occupied and well trained in their specialties, they generally lacked formal training in disciplines that could truly make them international/intercultural specialists. They also exhibited weaknesses in foreign languages and in previous international exposure.

Much to the dismay of respondents, international education enjoyed a secondary status. Lack of standardization and uniformity in practitioner titles and department name, as well as modest staffing, provision of low budgets, and existence of questionable recruiting practices all attested to this status.

Critical examination of interviews and survey data revealed that respondents assumed definite theoretical stances, often unknowingly. These stances, in turn, influenced services provided, goals anticipated, and philosophies of delivery. Prevailing theoretical stances over the periods covered in this study were modernization, human capital and neo-liberalism. Respondents did not question universality of Northern models of cognition and epistemologies, and did not consider to any significant extend possible social, cultural and political impacts of their transfer to the South.

Principles of modernization and human capital continued to hold currency among respondents and, since 1986, they accepted neo-liberal ideology and related educational and economic views as the only possible truth. Overwhelming acceptance of this ideology was manifested by the wide adoption of discourse and business models -- all without critical analysis. Respondents did not exhibit significant awareness of ideology at work. Export of ideologically-loaded ideas to the South had considerable cultural, social and political ramifications. These, unfortunately, were consistently left unaddressed.

Functions of international education, geographical origin of students, regions of international activity, curricula, delivery methods, partnerships with business and industry, language of instruction were all congruent with modernization tenets and neoliberal globalization. As such, these functions exhibited less than passing imperialistic characteristics. From a critical perspective, Canadian international education was seen as an entrepreneurial venture in support of branch plant economy, off-shore production and transborder capitalism. This venture aimed at creating a technically-qualified workforce -- or human capital -- in regions of depressed wages, abusive working conditions and authoritarian regimes.

CHAPTER VII -- REVIEW OF THE STUDY, CONCLUSIONS, RECOMMENDATIONS, AND REFLECTIONS

Preamble

The purpose of this chapter is to review the study, as well as to draw conclusions based on literature reviews, interviews, survey findings and discussion. Chapter VII, furthermore, presents suggestions for the improvement of international education and recommendations for action and future research, as well as a short section on personal reflections.

Review of Study

Needs, Purposes and Methodology

Absence of previous research on Canadian colleges and postsecondary technical institutions involvement in international education fostered a climate where practitioners, institutions and clients lacked the necessary information to gain a perspective of past and current issues and face future challenges with confidence. By examining international education since 1960, this study aimed at filling an informational gap that characterized the field for more than three decades.

Aside from investigating the origins of Canadian international education, its past and current achievements, as well as its trends and future needs, the study aimed at establishing how these trends and needs could better be met. In addition, it focused on increasing awareness and understanding of theoretical and ideological thoughts that have influenced international education since its beginnings.

To achieve its objectives, the study relied on three major research components: (a) literature review giving research a broad conceptual background; (b) five interviews of seasoned practitioners assisting in focusing more narrowly on research questions; and © comprehensive survey of 123 educational establishments providing information at the institutional level.

Brief Summary of Findings

Major findings of the study are briefly summarized in this section. Findings are presented based on each specific research question guiding the study.

Specific research question #1: "Where does Canadian college and postsecondary technical/vocational education assistance originate from?"

1.1 First appeared in the 1960's when much of the South attempted to modernize.

1.2 Canada's own technical education reform and expansion of the 1960's facilitated emergence and expansion of international education.

1.3 Coincided with political independence of British and French colonies in Africa and the need for newly independent nations to find substitutes for departed colonials.

1.4 Resulted from informal personal contacts and individual or institutional initiatives and interest. Consequently, international education received little or no federal coordination, support or funding.

1.5 Prompted by institutional need to provide staff with professional development opportunities.

Specific research question #2: : "What has been achieved in Canadian college and postsecondary technical/vocational education assistance?"

2.1 Canada established itself as a recognized international education provider.

2.2 Provision of training to foreign students and educators in Canadian institutions -- initially at the basic level, later at the level of specialization and upgrading. This training was either similar to that received by Canadians, or custom-tailored to meet clients specific needs. Programs offered were both short and long-term.

2.3 Provision of custom training to foreign students and educators abroad -- initially at the basic level, later at the level of specialization and upgrading. Programs offered were both short and long-term.

2.4 Assistance in establishing or modifying technical/vocational institutions abroad.

2.5 Provision of need analyses, feasibility studies, performance assessments, policy-making, design of curricula and ESL.

2.6 Initial disciplinary focus was on basic engineering and trades.

2.7 Initially catered to Africa then, later, Latin America and Asia.

Specific research question #3: "What is currently being achieved in Canadian college and postsecondary technical/vocational education assistance?"

3.1 Continued provision of training to foreign students and educators in Canadian institutions -- increasingly at the level of specialization and upgrading. This training is either similar to that received by Canadians, or custom-tailored to meet clients specific needs. Programs offered are both short and long-term.

3.2 Continued provision of custom training to foreign students and educators abroad -- increasingly at the level of specialization and upgrading. Programs offered were both short and long-term.

3.3 Continued assistance in establishing or modifying technical/vocational institutions abroad.

3.4 Continued provision of need analyses, feasibility studies, performance assessments, place-making, design of curricula and ESL.

3.5 Establishment of partnerships with other educational institutions in Canada and abroad. Consequent advent of branch plant education.

3.6 Establishment of partnerships with business and industry.

3.7 Offer of joint credentials between Canadian and foreign institutions.

3.8 Modest reliance on alternate and distance delivery technologies.

3.9 Recruitment by postsecondary institutions of international students already enrolled in Canadian secondary systems.

3.10 Promotion of trade and sale of Canadian goods and services via international education activities.

3.11 Disciplinary focus is currently on exploitation of natural resources, communication, information and leading-edge technologies.

3.12 Regional focus is currently on China, Asia and South East Asia, Mexico, specific parts of Latin America (mainly Brazil, Chile and Argentina) and Eastern Europe.

Specific research question #4: "What seem to be trends and future needs in Canadian college and postsecondary technical/vocational education assistance?"

4.1 Increased government disinvestment and adherence to business models in education -- consequent reliance on cost recovery.

4.2 Increased reliance on partnerships with other institutions as well as with business and industry.

4.3 Increased inter-institutional competition and, paradoxically, cooperation.

4.4 Increased proactivity and marketing aggressivity.

4.5 Increased focus on profit making, with associated decline of attention to humanitarian concerns.

4.6 Increased need for improved organization and coordination of international activities at Federal and Provincial levels.

4.7 Possible loss of international competitiveness by Canadian international education providers -- both in term of technology/knowledge, and in term of cost of services.

4.8 Need to improve staffing and support of international activities at the institutional level. Canadian international education providers to become more professional (less "amateurish").

4.9 Influence of globalization and free-trade agreements on international education activities.

4.10 Increased reliance on alternate and distance delivery technologies -- with associated globalization of education. Provision of training in delivery technologies to foreign clients.

4.11 Increased recruitment by postsecondary institutions of international students already enrolled in Canadian secondary systems.

4.12 Canada needs to simplify application process for foreign student visa.

4.13 Need to establish more flexible credit transfer among educational institutions and systems -- nationally and internationally.

4.14 Increased promotion of trade and sale of Canadian goods and services via international education activities.

Specific research question #5: "How can these trends and future needs of Canadian college and postsecondary technical/vocational education assistance better be met?"

5.1 Lobby government and institution for resumed funding at an appropriate level.

Although cost recovery could be maintained as a general policy, it should not be applied in all cases. Attempting to cost recover in all cases may exclude clients in dire need who cannot afford the entire cost of services.

5.2 Systematize cross-institutional partnerships along institutional strengths. This approach could be based on the creation of international centres of excellence -- with certain institutions specializing in certain disciplinary areas. Systematization along specialty lines would also help resolve the cooperation/competition dilemma presently experience by Canadian institutions.

5.3 Rely on professional marketing, complete in-depth market analyses, then target narrowly on most promising markets.

5.4 Revisit the issue of declining humanitarian assistance for the purpose of restoring the balance between profit-making and aid. Currently the equilibrium has been lost and excessive attention is given to the former.

5.5 Lobby the Federal Government to organize and coordinate international education in Canada.

5.6 In the context of partnerships, clearly delimit what educational establishments and business / industry roles will be, as there exists a strong probability for the latter sector to circumvent the need for institutional involvement by providing delivery without educators participation.

5.7 Institutions should invest in research and development activities to maintain technological superiority in the international arena, as returns of current knowledge transfer will likely continue to diminish.

5.8 Ensure better adherence to recruiting and hiring standards initially established.

5.9 Develop systematically the alternate / distance delivery capacity of Canadian institutions, and assess the technological capacity of the South to use these services.

5.10 Establish a well-articulated system of credit transfer between Canadian institutions and educational systems, as well as between Canadian institutions and systems and their equivalent abroad.

5.11 Improve student-tracking processes to maximize traffic of international students between Canadian secondary and postsecondary systems.

5.12 Revise regulations and procedures related to foreign student visas, with the aim of making them more agile.

Identification of theoretical and ideological currents: "What theoretical and ideological currents have influenced Canadian college and postsecondary technical/vocational education assistance in the past and continue to influence it today?" Although findings related to theoretical and ideological currents are inferential since the interviews and the survey did not investigate them overtly, the following four points emerged:

1. Canadian international education had initially been influenced by modernization and human capital theories and still retains many of their hallmarks.
2. Recent years were characterized by an increasing neo-liberal influence.
3. Neo-liberal influence in Canada has been strong. Consequently, current international education policies, trends and directions closely match the neo-liberal globalization agenda both in ideology and practice.
4. Over the last three decades, a shift from a humanitarian perspective to a pragmatic, "bottom line" attitude can be observed. Canadian international education became a commercial enterprise while less of an assistance tool.

Conclusions

Based on the findings of this study, the following conclusions can be drawn:

1. By and large, Canada has a good track record and reputation as international education provider.
2. Although marketing of international education has improved among Canadian institutions, it still remains weak in comparison to that of other assistance providers,
3. Although institutions exhibit various levels of enthusiasm about international activities, international education remains a viable undertaking for most.
4. Canadian international education appears to exhibit ideological and political

orientations consistent with modernization and human capital theories, as well as with the political and economic agenda of the New Right (neo-liberal variety).

5. Related to #4, Canada does not appear to provide neutral assistance, but rather assistance aligned with US and capitalist views.
6. Canadian international education is Eurocentric, as it relies primarily on Northern models of cognition and educational practices.
7. International education departments generally rely on questionable recruiting and hiring practices. These practices are consistent with a lack of understanding of cultural differences, epistemologies, models of cognition, historical, social and political realities of the South.
8. International education provided by Canadian institutions generally consists of the transplant of Canadian ways and curricula to the South, rather of the delivery of programs carefully tailored to Southern realities and needs.
9. Canadian international education is poorly organized and coordinated at the national and international level and direly needs Federal involvement.
10. International education is generally poorly supported, staffed and funded at the institutional level. The low status enjoyed by international education at the institutional level appears to relate to the lack of understanding and appreciation administrators have of the endeavour.
11. Currently, Canadian international education focuses excessively on profit-making and neglect other aspects of assistance.

Recommendations

Based on the findings and conclusions of the study, the following recommendations for action and future research are presented in the following sections:

Recommendations for Action

1. The most important issue centres around the dire need for coordination and marketing of international education by the Canadian Government. *Canada needs a task force dedicated solely to support international education*. A major responsibility of this task force should be articulation of the many services

offered by discrete institutions into a coherent educational menu from which Southern clients, typically working within national rather than provincial systems, could make their selection. Also of importance on the part of the Canadian Government, would be implementation of a more rapid visa application process for foreign students. Another primary function of the suggested federal task force would be to market educational services by forming cross-institutional teams. The experience of Prime Minister Jean Chrétien's "Team Canada" to promote Canadian business and industry could be used as a model for establishing an official *"Educational Team Canada"* serving similar purposes in the realm of education.

2. Second in importance is the *need for administrators within institutions, to recognize the developmental and financial potential of international education*. It is evident that international education plays a secondary or complementary role in most institutions. Inappropriately staffed and insufficiently funded, most departments focus on cost-recovery, with limited time/resources to explore opportunities or create them. Although cost-recovery is likely permanent, institutions would benefit immensely from staffing their departments adequately (both quantitatively and qualitatively) and from establishing funds for exploratory activities which are a vital component of proactivity.

3. *Training and hiring of international education practitioners should be organized in a logical manner.* Canadian international education practitioners generally lack adequate cross-cultural and linguistic preparation for the tasks they undertake. The Eurocentric nature of Canadian cognition paradigms and linearity of delivery methods utilized in international education leave much to be desired in a Southern context.

   Although important for teaching foreign students in Canada, cross-cultural and linguistic abilities are indispensable for educators working abroad. As an elementary requirement for international involvement, *Canadian practitioners should receive training in the equivalent of five university courses.* The first course should focus on a comparative analysis of cognition processes across cultures -- including industrial and pre-industrial, as well as on the historical purposes of schooling in Canada and the South. The second course should investigate major developmental paradigms, their root ideologies, advantages and disadvantages. The third course should examine the region of the South the practitioner specializes in and where he/she will eventually work. This course should investigate pre-colonial, colonial and post-colonial history, as well as economic, social and political effects neo- and internal colonialism have on the region. The fourth course should explore in an unbiased manner the evolution and achievements of capitalist and socialist assistance since World War II. The fifth and last course should focus on evolution of economic systems, with particular emphasis on mercantile, industrial and corporate capitalism. Important in this course would be the analysis of pros and cons of transnational presence in the South, as well as links between economic development and the environment. Aside from theoretical components, suggested courses should provide direct practical experience in cross-cultural situations. This experience could be acquired by interacting with foreign students on campus, doing field work in practicum settings -- either abroad or in Canadian offices of foreign firms, or by working at distance on joint projects with foreign educators abroad. To the limited training suggested above should also be added the basic requirement of academic fluency in a minimum of two languages of direct international education relevancy (excluding English or French).

4. Lack of cross-cultural and linguistic preparation is compounded by questionable hiring practices for international duties. The study revealed that convenience or internal political expediency acted as overriding factors, while rational criteria such as *applicant's international experience, qualifications, as well as cross-cultural and linguistic skills accounted for little in the selection process. This practice is inadmissible and should be discontinued immediately*, as it impacts most adversely on the international reputation of Canada, institutional

performance, service to international clients, and applicant career. Unless this practice is discontinued, institutions will continue to harvest the fruits of poor administrative practices or, to quote one respondent, act as *amateurs*.

5. Related to cross-cultural awareness and linguistic ability, is the issue of curricular customization. Research findings indicated that too often Canadian international education consists of the direct transplant of Canadian curricula and support materials to the South. This practice is not surprising since lack of cross-cultural awareness and knowledge of other languages effectively prevent Canadian institutions from recognizing how inappropriate such direct transfer really is. To this lack of recognition must also be added the financial attractiveness of selling products already packaged, without the need for costly customization and translation. By *providing practitioners with appropriate cross-cultural and linguistic skills*, problems associated with direct transfer would largely resolve themselves.

6. The study revealed that, over time, international education provided basic training, then -- when basic training became available in the South -- specialization and upgrading. Populations in the South, however, quickly learn and master skills taught by Canadian institutions. Soon, countries of the South will have reached a point where they, too, can provide specialization and upgrading. There is, however, no indication on the part of Canadian institutions of the existence of a contingency plan to implement when that point is reached. This *lack of strategy* is the harbinger of serious problems to come and *should become the immediate object of institutional attention.*

7. The strong geographical focus placed by Canada on the Asiatic region may be suspect, given that many critical analysts have long attracted attention to the region's ills and latent crises, two of which -- financial collapse and civil unrest -- have recently surfaced. Just as it occurs presently in Indonesia, it is likely that instability will surface throughout the region as populations can only put up so long with abusive regimes fast-tracking industrialization and economic

adjustment at tremendous social costs.

Consequently, *Canada would be wise to expand or refocus its international activities on other regions*. The country must learn from the lesson of some of the NICs, their decline and current social crises, for the same patterns have already started to repeat themselves elsewhere where economic concerns gained more attention than social ones.

8. *Canada sh*ould *restore fully the humanitarian aspect of its educational assistance, limit its current entrepreneurial trend, and carefully decide which type of development it ultimately should support.* As pointed out by respondents, entrepreneurship and profit-generation present the dangers of pricing Canada out of the competition and preventing team work between institutions. It is, furthermore unlikely that economic development could be achieved outside a socially stable context humanitarian assistance could foster.
9. Educational institutions should establish precise limits to how far they are prepare to surrender their autonomy within the context of partnerships with business and industry. Clear *delimitation of roles* is essential in the climate of entrepreneurship and privatization of education for, if institutions fail to set clear limits, they may "partner" themselves out of existence.

Recommendations for Future Research

The study was limited in time and scope and could not address peripheral findings that emerged from literature reviews, interviews and the survey. Many of these findings, however, deserve attention and should become objects of further research. Areas for future research are as follows:

1. Possible differences existing between the international philosophy, focus, activities and practices of public and private institutions.
2. Possible differences existing between international education at English- and French- speaking institutions.
3. Comparison of regional differences existing, for example, between institutions in the West and the Maritimes.

4. Detailed comparative investigation of performance achieved by international departments staffed by cross-culturally and linguistically trained individuals, and those staffed by individuals lacking this training.
5. How much weight is carried by these respective evaluators in the final assessment of international education programs and projects.
6. Comparative study of personality traits of current international educators and those of traditional colonialists. Are there traits common to both that prompt them to get involved abroad?
7. Comparative study of international education's contents and functions and those of colonial education in the South, or aboriginal education in Canada.
8. Comparative semiotic analysis of Canadian educational policy and New-Right metanarrative. In addition, this semiotic analysis could be followed or complemented by a comparative analysis of educational and neo-conservative / neo-liberal strategies of agenda implementation.
9. Investigation of relationships existing between government, capital investment and labour market policies.
10. Investigation of links existing between technical / vocational education and technology transfer.
11. Investigate relationships existing between new trade agreements (APEC, NAFTA, etc.) and technical / vocational education.
12. Investigate the nature of links existing between technical / vocational education and popular education.
13. Investigate links existing between different kinds of tertiary education in Canada.
14. Overtly investigate the role played by ideology in Canadian education at home and abroad.

Expanded Conceptual Framework

Research permitted expansion and reinforcement of the initial conceptual framework guiding the study (Figure 2.1) by providing insight in government ideology in the later period, as well as in institutional perspective and international education faculty -

- both at early and late periods. Expansion and reinforcement of the initial conceptual framework yielded the revised version presented in Figure 7.1.

The framework based on literature reviews (Figure 2.1) revealed a perceptible shift in Canadian policy from aid to profit over the period 1960 to 1998, with a concomitant shift from adherence to modernization and human capital ideas to neo-liberal ones. Interviews and the survey aimed at confirming these shifts as well as discovering possible accompanying changes in institutional perspectives and international education faculty values and beliefs over the same time period.

Government ideology: The research supported adherence by the Canadian Government to modernization and human capital thoughts in the 1960's and a gradual move to neo-liberal ideas in the 1990's. However, findings also revealed the continued presence of modernization and human capital ideas mixed with neo-liberal ones. Indeed, specific elements of modernization and human capital such as the need to engage in modern production and to create a technically proficient workforce have survived. At the same time, however, modernization limited concern for social aspects of development have taken a back seat to entrepreneurship and the implementation of business models congruent with neo-liberalism.

Institutional perspective: Interviews and the survey revealed that although institutional perspectives concerning international education reflected the Canadian Government ideology in the 1960's, it also rested on liberal humanitarianism. That is, although human capital theory provided most ideas and orientations concerning international education at the institutional level, institutions exhibited a genuine concern about the well-being of those in need. Ideological congruence can also be found in the 1990's between the Government propensity to follow neo-liberal strategies and the adoption of market economy, entrepreneurship and business models at the institutional level. For the later period findings indicated considerable decrease of humanitarian concern at the institutional level.

International education faculty values and beliefs: Although isolated cases of congruence between government ideology, institutional perspective and international education faculty values and beliefs can be found, faculty have typically exhibited values and beliefs differing from those held by government and institutions.

In the 1960's, members of the faculty involved in international education were primarily motivated by liberal humanitarianism -- few had awareness of developmental theories or took them into account. Although humanitarianism is still present in 1998, it is mixed with entrepreneurial and technocratic ideas as faculty attempt to maintain a humanitarian orientation while being influenced by neo-liberal thoughts now prevalent in Government and institution.

Personal Reflections

I knew early on in my studies that the involvement of Canadian colleges and postsecondary technical / vocational institutions in international education required additional attention. Research conducted to support course papers and presentations attracted my attention to the dearth of research and information available on the topic. This lack of information manifested itself again -- outside the academic context -- when I attempted to gain a clearer understanding of international activities at the institution where I was employed . Although Canadian institutions had been involved in international undertakings for more than three decades it was as if no trace existed of their involvement!

I decided to do something concrete about this lack of information by making Canadian international education the focus of my doctoral dissertation. As I had expected, lack of information proved to be both a blessing and a curse. On the one hand absence of research confirmed the need for the study, on the other it impeded comparison and corroboration of findings with those obtained by other researchers. Absence of research did not stop me, however, as I considered the topic to be of personal interest and academic significance.

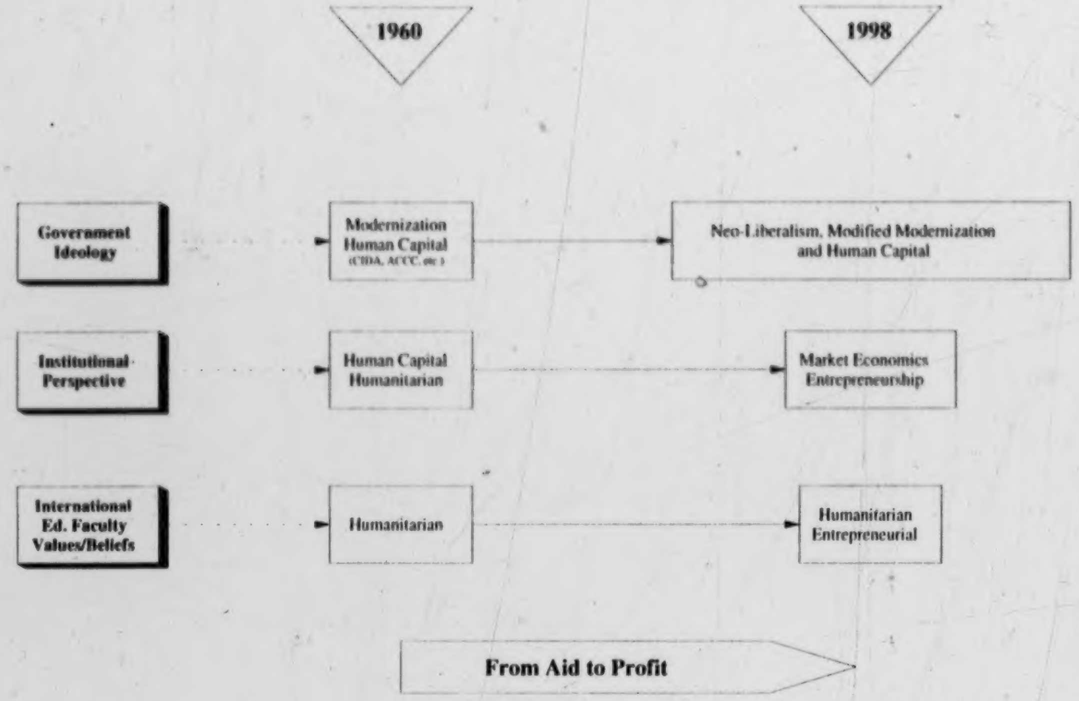
1960
1998
Government Ideology
Modernization Human Capital (CIDA, AUCC, etc.)
Neo-Liberalism, Modified Modernization and Human Capital
Institutional Perspective
Human Capital Humanitarian
Market Economics Entrepreneurship
International Ed. Faculty Values/Beliefs
Humanitarian
Humanitarian Entrepreneurial
From Aid to Profit

Figure 7.1: Expanded Conceptual Framework Based on Findings

My decision to proceed with the study was well received by members of my doctoral committee as well as by several seasoned practitioners with whom I had it -- all agreed that research in the area was long overdue. To my delight, interviews and the survey eventually revealed that respondents involved in Canadian international education also felt the need for the study. Wide support went a long way to boost my belief that I was doing the right thing and that my work would contribute to knowledge in the field.

It is impossible to conduct a major study without being influenced by its process and findings and this study was no exception. Aside from giving me additional exposure to interview and survey techniques and data analysis, the study forced me to recognize, confront and question long-held assumptions, beliefs and opinions.

The study provided me with an ideal opportunity to review the many international education achievements of Canada over nearly four decades. It also allowed me to better understand the challenges and obstacles Canadian international education practitioners faced over time, and to develop a deeper sense of appreciation for the skills and efforts required to successfully meet these challenges and negotiate these obstacles. The study also fostered in me a greater appreciation for how much international education was steeped in ideology. This ideology was, typically, not acknowledged by practitioners or in policy -- both of whom saw Canadian education as neutral. Ideology was, however, always at work behind the scene. This ideology had even shaped my own early views of educational assistance.

Indeed, I long thought that developed nations had answers to questions of developing ones; in other words I perceived assistance to unfold in a deficit climate. This perception also implied a belief in the universal validity of the Northern developmental experience. I did not think that helping needy nations implied unequal relationships and the practice of liberal humanitarian charity. I did not question the suitability of transferring Northern knowledge and practices to cultural, historical, social, political and occupational contexts for which they had not been specifically devised. I, too, believed that if these practices worked well in Canada they should work well elsewhere. Implicit to my assumptions was the acceptance of modernization and human-capital tenets: for the

South to develop, it had to change, become more like Northerners and consume practical education like Northerners do.

Conducting the study, however, opened my eyes to my own shortsightedness. The more I delved into the research, the more I realized to my surprise that like the majority of my Canadian colleagues and peers, I had accepted ideologically-rooted assumptions and made them my own. Contrary to my initial beliefs, developed nations did not have answers to questions of developing ones; and, when they provided answers, they invariably did so in a deficit and liberal humanitarian climate. Research indicated that, contrary to what I thought, the Northern developmental experience had scant relevancy in the contemporary South. Similarly, research dispelled my faith in the suitability of transferring Northern knowledge and practices to the South. Indeed, cultural, historical, social, political and occupational differences between North and South are often such that they prevent appropriate transfer. As for my modernization and human capital ideas, I had to relinquish them in light of the many problems inherent with these theories. This study, therefore, proved to be instrumental in attracting my attention to the danger of taking assumptions at face value and to the personal and collective implications of ignoring unseen influences.

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APPENDIX 1

SEMI-STRUCTURED INTERVIEW -- SCHEDULE

DOCTORAL RESEARCH ON INTERNATIONAL EDUCATION

SEMI-STRUCTURED INTERVIEW QUESTIONS

Prepared by J.P.E. Hurabielle May 28, 1996

Interview administered to : ______________________________

Date: ____________ **Time:** ____________ **Place:** ______________

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0 **REVIEW PURPOSE OF INTERVIEW:** *(Allocated time: 5 min.)*
- 0.1 To support preliminary research for dissertation.
- 0.2 To gain a historical and conceptual understanding of the institutions involvement in international activities.
- 0.3 To gain a historical and conceptual understanding of the Federal and Provincial governments' involvement in international activities.
- 0.4 To gain a better knowledge of the institution international activities scope and focus.
- 0.5 To gain a better knowledge of the institutions international clientele.
- 0.6 To become aware of crucial issues that might still escape me.

1 **SOURCE IDENTIFICATION:** *(Allocated time: 4 min.)*
- 0.1 What was your official title?
- 0.2 Why was international education your responsibility?
- 0.3 When did you start your term of service in this position?
- 0.4 When did you end your term of service in this position?
- 0.5 Why did you leave this position?
- 0.6 Did you resume the position at a later time?

1 **ORIGINS OF INTERNATIONAL EDUCATION ACTIVITIES:** *(Allocated time: 5 min.)*
- 1.1 When were international education activities started at the institution?
- 1.2 What was the department overseeing these activities?
- 1.3 For what international reasons were started? *(Role of policies)*
- 1.4 For what national reasons were these activities started? *(Role of policies)*
- 1.5 For what provincial reasons were these activities started? *(Role of policies)*
- 1.6 For what local reasons were these activities started? *(Role of policies)*
- 1.7 Were they other reasons?
- 1.8 If yes, what were these reasons?

2 **MANDATES OF THE INSTITUTION AND DEPARTMENT:** *(Allocated time: 4 min.)*
- 2.1 What was the initial mandate of the institution in terms of international activities?
- 2.2 What was the initial mandate of the department in terms of international activities?
- 2.3 What evolution did the department's mandate experience during your period of involvement?
- 2.4 What was the department's mandate at the time your involvement ceased?

3 **DEPARTMENT SUPPORT:** *(Allocated time: 8 min.)*
- 3.1 Did the institution's administration give the department the appropriate level of

7.3 Did you notice a change in this focus over your term of service?
7.4 If so, in what direction? *and*
7.5 For what reasons?
8 **FOCUS OF PROGRAMS:** *(Allocated time: 12 min.)*
8.1 Was the institution predominantly involved in short-term or long-term activities?
8.2 Did this involvement focus predominantly on field work or training of foreign students at the Institute?
8.3 Was program delivery predominantly aimed at individuals or groups?
8.4 Were programs predominantly focussed on training, re-training, or upgrading?
8.5 What was the typical length of these programs?
8.6 Were training programs predominantly handled solely by the institution, or were they cross-institutional?
8.7 Did the education provided generally involve unique, custom-designed training programs, or adaptations of the regular Institute curricula?
8.8 Which Divisions were the most heavily involved in international education?
8.9 Which were the most heavily involved programs in these Divisions?
8.10 What are the major reasons for this specific program focus?
8.11 Did you notice a change in this focus over your term of service?
8.12 If so, in what direction? *and*
8.13 For what reasons?
9 **VOLUME OF WORK HANDLED BY THE DEPARTMENT:** *(Allocated time: 9 min.)*
9.1 What was the annual average number of potential projects investigated during your term of service?
9.2 What was the annual average number of projects undertaken during your term of service?
9.3 What was the annual average number of projects completed during your term of service?
9.4 What were the criteria used to determine which projects to pursue?
9.5 What is your estimate of the International Education Department's contribution to the institution's total revenue-generation, in percent?
10 **CHARACTERISTICS OF THE CLIENTELE:** *(Allocated time: 14 min.)*
10.1 From which continental area did the majority of foreign students come?
10.2 Did these students come as a result of international agreements?
10.3 Did these students come as a result of inter-institutional agreements?
10.4 For what other major reasons did foreign students select your institution as opposed to another one?
10.5 Were most foreign students financially sponsored or self-supporting?
10.6 If sponsored, who generally sponsored them?
10.7 If sponsored, why did they generally receive that support?
10.8 What range of previous academic credentials did foreign students typically have?
10.9 What were the typical credentials obtained by foreign students after completing their programs at the institution?
10.10 To what socio-economic stratum did foreign students typically belong?
10.11 Did foreign students predominantly have English as their mother tongue?
10.12 Was the clientele largely male or female?
10.13 In what age bracket did the clientele typically fall?
10.14 Were foreign students predominantly married or single?

support to meet its mandate?

3.2 Did the Canadian government give the department an appropriate level of support to meet its mandate?

3.3 Did the Provincial government give the department an appropriate level of support to meet its mandate?

3.4 Did the department receive an appropriate level of local support to meet its mandate?

3.5 Did the department ever receive the support of former students?

4 **DEPARTMENT STAFF:** *(Allocated time 12 min.)*

4.1 What was the department's hierarchical structure during your term of service?

4.2 To which higher position did you report?

4.3 Was staffing of a permanent or contractual nature during your period of involvement?

4.4 How many people comprised regular departmental staff?

4.5 Did department staff members have unique technical abilities?

4.6 Did department staff members have unique academic qualifications?

4.7 Did department staff members have unique managerial experiences?

4.8 Did department staff members have multilingual abilities?

4.9 Did department staff members have a sound cultural compatibility with their geographical area of operation?

4.10 What were the most desirable characteristics looked for in department staff members?

5 **FIELD STAFF:** *(Allocated time: 10 min.)*

5.1 How many people typically participated in field projects at any given time?

5.2 Did field educators have unique technical abilities?

5.3 Did field educators have unique academic qualifications?

5.4 Did field educators have unique managerial experiences?

5.5 Did field educators have multilingual abilities?

5.6 Were field educators culturally compatible with their geographical area of operation?

5.7 What were the most desirable characteristics looked for in field staff members?

5.8 Was there a system to consolidate the human resource base of the department by rotating the institution's staff through international projects?

5.9 If yes, how did this system function?

6 **MARKETING OF SERVICES:** *(Allocated time: 9 min.)*

6.1 During your term of service was operation of the department primarily reactive or proactive?

6.2 If proactive, was strategic marketing used to generate projects?

6.3 If used, what were the different strategies relied upon to generate new contacts?

6.4 What percentage of its budget did the department devote to supporting and expanding marketing activities?

6.5 Who was responsible for marketing services?

6.6 Were field agents ever used to market services abroad?

6.7 If yes, how many, and in what geographical areas?

6.8 Were the individuals involved in promoting services marketing professionals?

7 **REGIONAL FOCUS:** *(Allocated time: 4 min.)*

7.1 What was the major regional focus of operation during your term of service?

7.2 What were the most important reasons for this focus as opposed to another?

10.15 Did their family accompany them to Canada?

11 **WORK EVALUATION AND ASSESSMENT:** *(Allocated time: 9 min.)*
- 11.1 Were projects and programs evaluated after completion?
- 11.2 If yes, by whom?
- 11.3 If yes, against what criteria?
- 11.4 If yes, at what intervals?
- 11.5 If yes, what was generally the process used?
- 11.6 Did foreign clients evaluate programs and projects?
- 11.7 Did instructors evaluate programs and projects?
- 11.8 Did programs and projects generally have a feedback loop permitting corrective action?
- 11.9 If corrective actions were required, who was financially responsible for their implementation?

12 **RECOMMENDATIONS:** *(Allocated time: 4 min.)*
- 12.1 What major recommendations did you make upon starting your term of service?
- 12.2 What major recommendations did you make upon ending your term of service?
- 12.3 What major recommendations would you make now?

13 **WRAP UP INTERVIEW PROCESS:** *(Allocated time: 5 min.)*
- 13.1 Thank for time given.
- 13.2 Thank for quality of information shared.
- 13.3 Give participants a gift in appreciation.
- 13.4 Offer to share dissertation when completed.
- 13.5 Ask for respondents' impression of the interview process.

APPENDIX 2

THEMES

INTERVIEWS OF PRACTITIONERS -- COMBINED THEMATIC ANALYSIS MATRIX

#	THEME	1	2	3	4	5
1	Earliest traces of international involvement by institutions in province -- circa late 1950s	✓				✓
2	Institution really began international operations in the 60s	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
3	Started in Africa (ex-British colonies)	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
4	Started because of personal contacts and friendships between state leaders	✓				
5	Started because of personal contacts and interest at the institutional level	✓		✓	✓	✓
6	Initially, projects were taken-on one at a time, and largely because of senior administrators' interest and decision					✓
7	Independence of British Africa and replacement of expatriates as coinciding factors?	✓				
8	African countries preferred the more modern, responsive and agile Canadian technical system than the old British one based on guilds structure, etc.				✓	
9	Initially, activities had only a purely humanitarian goal	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
10	At the beginning, in Canada, there was a simple assumption that helping LDCs was a good and right thing to do			✓		
11	Since there is no huge amount of money to be made in international education, we should not get into it for revenue generation -- we should stick to the original humanitarian goals				✓	
12	Once good reputation of institution was established, other African countries followed	✓				

INTERVIEWS OF PRACTITIONERS -- COMBINED THEMATIC ANALYSIS MATRIX

13	Attractive Canadian traits: relative ideological non-alignment, willingness, own colonial past, leadership in technical education at home -- from early 1960s on	✓			✓	✓
14	After Africa came Latin America (modestly) and South East Asia	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
15	Continuous Latin American involvement is more difficult because of language problems					✓
16	Initially activities fell under the auspices of the Vice President's office		✓			
17	No department of international education through 60s, 70s and part of the 80s	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
18	No clearly articulated international mandate at the beginning -- before directorship	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
19	Fuzziness existed as to what the real objective of international education was -- before and after directorship. Same fuzziness existed at the Canadian government level, too			✓		
20	Fuzziness of goals at all levels, combined with availability of funds in the 60s and 70s led to haphazard development of international education in Canada -- at the micro and macro levels			✓		
21	Fuzziness about goals made it difficult for the department of international education to find an ideal home in the administrative structure		✓	✓		
22	At the beginning, uncertainties often existed as to the desirability for the institution to engage in international education at all					✓
23	Fuzziness and uncertainties were compounded by the fact that the Technical Institute Act gave NO direction at all in the area of international activities			✓		
24	At the beginning, major emphasis was placed on overseas consultancies	✓				✓

INTERVIEWS OF PRACTITIONERS -- COMBINED THEMATIC ANALYSIS MATRIX

25	At the beginning, little emphasis placed on training international students in Canada	✓				
26	Later on, training of students occurred -- first initial, then upgrading and specialization					✓
27	Phased out activities in Africa in the 1970s	✓				
28	Directorship was implemented in mid-1980s	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
29	Mandate emerged after directorship became established	✓		✓		✓
30	Directorship brought some direction -- new ties with agencies and funding bodies	✓	✓	✓		
31	Under early directorship, department of international education relied on an administration advisory committee making recommendations on possible projects selection			✓		
32	Before directorship, and during early phases of it -- no joint venture with other institutions					✓
33	Although some limited inter-institutional ventures took place, the tendency was generally to keep projects within the institution		✓			
34	During directorship -- enjoyed support from CBIE, ACCC, WUSC, CIDA -- project referrals	✓				
35	Under directorship -- reasonably good support from agencies and levels of government	✓				
36	Although some coordination and communication existed between institution, there was and still is little continuity between what occurs in one institution and the next. This is attributable to early developments when each institution went its own course			✓		
37	Before and after directorship -- tackle whatever could be tackled (institutional strengths)	✓				✓

INTERVIEWS OF PRACTITIONERS -- COMBINED THEMATIC ANALYSIS MATRIX

38	It is of utmost importance to play within the institutional strengths, and not to go astray pursuing projects ill-suited to the institution		✓	✓		
39	Early directorship -- doubts existed as to best way to handle foreign requests	✓				
40	Before directorship -- virtually no organized marketing of any sort, and no marketing budget	✓				
41	Marketing field agents abroad have not systematically been used to-date	✓				
42	Active marketing overseas planned for the 80s, but only implemented in the 90s	✓				
43	Budget devoted to marketing grew manyfold, over time, under the directorship		✓			
44	From mid-80s on, Pacific Rim was targeted for activities -- this follows agencies and foreign policy	✓	✓	✓		
45	Near-negligible involvement to-date in Eastern Europe					✓
46	Interested to move into Eastern Europe if region stabilizes politically and makes a firm commitment to the market system					✓
47	Even at beginning, perceptible CIDA involvement in selecting and financing projects	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
48	Provincial approval, but little effective support -- more preoccupied with foreign scholars	✓	✓			✓
49	In early days, little support received from Canadian business and industry -- no partnerships	✓				
50	Only negligible support from graduated technical international students over time	✓				
51	From onset international education department was not fully staffed	✓	✓			✓

INTERVIEWS OF PRACTITIONERS -- COMBINED THEMATIC ANALYSIS MATRIX

52	Just staffed with director and secretary, other personnel seconded from program areas	✓	✓			
53	International education not considered by administration to be primary activity	✓		✓		✓
54	International education first viewed as secondary activity, then complementary activity only	✓		✓		✓
55	Initially, institutional budget devoted to international education was very modest	✓	✓			✓
56	Over time the budget devoted to international education grew, however this growth was more perceptible under directorship, after 1985	✓	✓			✓
57	Originally the financial goal was to break even or not loose too much over time	✓		✓	✓	✓
58	From breaking even, financial goal progressively changed towards substantial revenue generation and increased support to Canadian private sector. This changed occurred in parallel with shifts in Canadian foreign policy	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
59	As revenue generation became a prominent factor, clientele focus started to change too, with emphasis more towards clients who can pay	✓	✓	✓		
60	From 1985 on, shifted progressively to regions of higher solvency (Pacific Rim, notably)		✓			
61	There is still a clear need for mid-careers training in LDC's	✓		✓	✓	
62	Early approach was definitely reactive rather than proactive	✓				✓
63	Early projects consisted mainly of largely consultancies					✓
64	Director must be proactive if international involvement of institution is expected to grow	✓	✓			

INTERVIEWS OF PRACTITIONERS -- COMBINED THEMATIC ANALYSIS MATRIX

65	Number of projects and associated revenue grew manyfold during the directorship era		✓			
66	Funding has always been problematic because international activities do not fit well fiscal or academic year calendars, and because it is difficult to project income and expenses in the volatile international market where projects and clients can appear and disappear literally overnight		✓			
67	Under directorship -- started database of institutional international strengths and talents	✓				
68	Personnel -- desirable characteristics: technical proficiency, technical qualifications, certifications, interpersonal skills, self-reliance, reasonable health, cultural compatibilities, awareness of different beliefs and values, and travel experience. *Often difficult to go beyond technical skills and proficiencies.*	✓	✓			✓
69	Technical proficiency alone soon proved to be insufficient to guarantee staff success overseas					✓
70	Notwithstanding selection criteria, personnel for overseas duty was/is largely appointed on the basis of availability and staffing surplus in certain areas rather than by open competitions		✓			
71	Personnel hired directly off the street for consultancies very rarely work as well as that from the institution		✓			
72	Depending on level of development in foreign country, Canadian personnel assumed advisory or established functions	✓				
73	Evolution of institutional involvement under directorship: training of students in Canada, overseas consultancies, overseas needs assessment, equipment procurement and policy design, institutional planning		✓			
74	Under directorship, both short- and long-term projects were/are pursued		✓			

INTERVIEWS OF PRACTITIONERS -- COMBINED THEMATIC ANALYSIS MATRIX

75	Short-term programs are interesting because they provide good opportunities for staff development, but they do not generate much revenue, if any		√			
76	Long-term projects are indispensable to generate revenue and maintain the sustainability of the department		√			
77	Initial priorities under directorship (in order): Staff development, support Canadian private sector, meet Canada's commitments towards LDCs assistance, break even financially or make a very modest profit		√	√	√	√
78	Recognition that if certain things had to be done over they would likely be done differently	√				
79	To-date, the institution has not actively or systematically recruited students abroad		√			
80	Initially students came institution to attend regular programs yielding regular credentials	√				
81	Later, students often came to partake in custom-made, short duration courses yielding special international credentials *(these have no directly corresponding currency on Canadian occupational market)*	√				√
82	Many students already had high academic credentials in their home country - typically, however, they were short in practical training	√	√			√
83	Foreign credentials always remain a challenge to evaluate and grant equivalency to		√			
84	International students in regular programs must meet all requirements met by Canadian students	√	√			
85	In custom programs, requirements may be different, but they still have to be met	√	√			

INTERVIEWS OF PRACTITIONERS -- COMBINED THEMATIC ANALYSIS MATRIX

86	Custom programs are largely defined by sponsoring organization and foreign institutions' needs	✓				
87	In regular programs, quotas and related political issues could be circumvented by creating higher fee, special seats for international students only		✓	✓		✓
88	Over time a shift occurred from catering to individual students, to catering to groups	✓	✓			
89	Some student were funded through aid, some through their own governments (*the latter representing a better revenue-generation opportunity)*	✓				
90	To date, training of international students on campus still represents a minor stream, particularly in terms of revenue generation. Overseas projects are much more attractive and viable	✓				
91	International students coming to Canada can be considered to be members of the academic elites at home, NOT necessarily of the financial elites.	✓	✓			
92	As the price of Canadian education increases for international students, we may see a larger representation of the financial elites among these students		✓			
93	International students already in the Canadian secondary system will become key customer because of the large fee differential they command		✓			✓
94	Although there is a perceptible change and a variation country-by-country, most international students have traditionally been males	✓	✓			✓
95	Generally, international students have been young adults	✓	✓			✓
96	Generally, international students -- even when married -- come without their families	✓	✓			

INTERVIEWS OF PRACTITIONERS -- COMBINED THEMATIC ANALYSIS MATRIX

97	International involvement in overseas projects brought, nevertheless, an increased enrollment of international students	✓				
98	International students to-date rarely select the institution, they invariably come to a given institution within the framework of international or inter-institutional agreements	✓				✓
99	Majority of students were, and still are predominantly sponsored and financially supported	✓				✓
100	Many international students, especially those from Asia, take training in English at home before coming to Canada		✓			
101	In all cases, international students enrolled in regular programs must pass the TOEFL tyest		✓			
102	Currently the bulk of international students comes from Asia and Eastern Europe (latter in smaller number)		✓			
103	Main disciplinary focus was traditionally on engineering and industrial technologies, as well as on related trades	✓	✓		✓	✓
104	More recently a shift occurred (last 15 or so years) towards petroleum, instrumentation, plastics, water resources, and business administration -- marking a change in training needs in the South	✓				
105	Under directorship, the institution participated in more foreign technical teacher training than it did before					✓

INTERVIEWS OF PRACTITIONERS -- COMBINED THEMATIC ANALYSIS MATRIX

106	Informal project-selection criteria: institutional expertise, availability of human resources, rationale for getting involved, appropriate funding, agency participation, opportunity for staff development, opportunity for staff exchange, institutional and staff interest, negative or positive impacts on institution, likelihood of approval, time factor, complexity of logistic details, political climate of recipient nation	√	√	√	√	
107	The majority of consultancies abroad involved direct transplant of existing institutional programs overseas -- not the devising of truly custom/unique ones					√
108	Evaluation and assessment of international student training is largely based on ability of such students to receive credentials anticipated -- be they regular or custom	√	√	√		
109	Evaluation of international projects and consultancies differs from project to project but usually includes meeting the initial contractual terms of reference and mutually agreed-upon criteria imbedded in the MOU. This process also includes continuous feedback during projects	√	√	√		√
110	When funding comes from an international agency, this agency partakes in formal evaluation					√
111	In the rare cases difficulties are encountered, institution goes well beyond what is necessary to honour its commitments and please the international client		√			
112	Change of educational needs over time: LDCs now rarely require low level training, needs are centred more around mid-level technical needs. Trend is to send nationals to Canada only for short, specialized, narrowly-focussed training. Tendency, lately, has been for Canadian institutions to take a foreign institution under their protective wings and develop close working relationship with such foreign schools	√				

INTERVIEWS OF PRACTITIONERS -- COMBINED THEMATIC ANALYSIS MATRIX

113	Problem with international students is the phenomenon of internal brain-drain. When returning to their institutions, they do not get paid very much and are quickly seduced by local and subsidiary industries paying much higher salaries	✓				
114	Over time, we simply projected our culture, practices, approaches, because we thought that it was the good thing to do. This has been a questionable approach, we must be more creative				✓	
115	Since our foreign pupils are already often surpassing their master in the game we taught them, we must become more creative if we want to stay in business				✓	
116	In the current Canadian fiscal climate, it is difficult for institutions to attempt justifying international activities and disbursement of funds not directly aimed at Canadian students			✓		
117	To successfully function in international education, Canadian institutions need a better degree of inter-institutional articulation of goals, resources, and activities			✓		
118	The majority of Canadian institutions got into international education when finances were flush. Now things have changed and many have second thought. It is likely that many institutions will pull out of international education altogether			✓		
119	For international education to function well in the future, programs teaching international students should receive appropriate compensation (such students demand a lot of special attention); staff directly involved should also be duly compensated for the extra time, efforts and care demonstrated		✓			
120	In the future there will be a higher degree of partnership with industry, because industry can be at the leading edge of technologies and institutions cannot				✓	

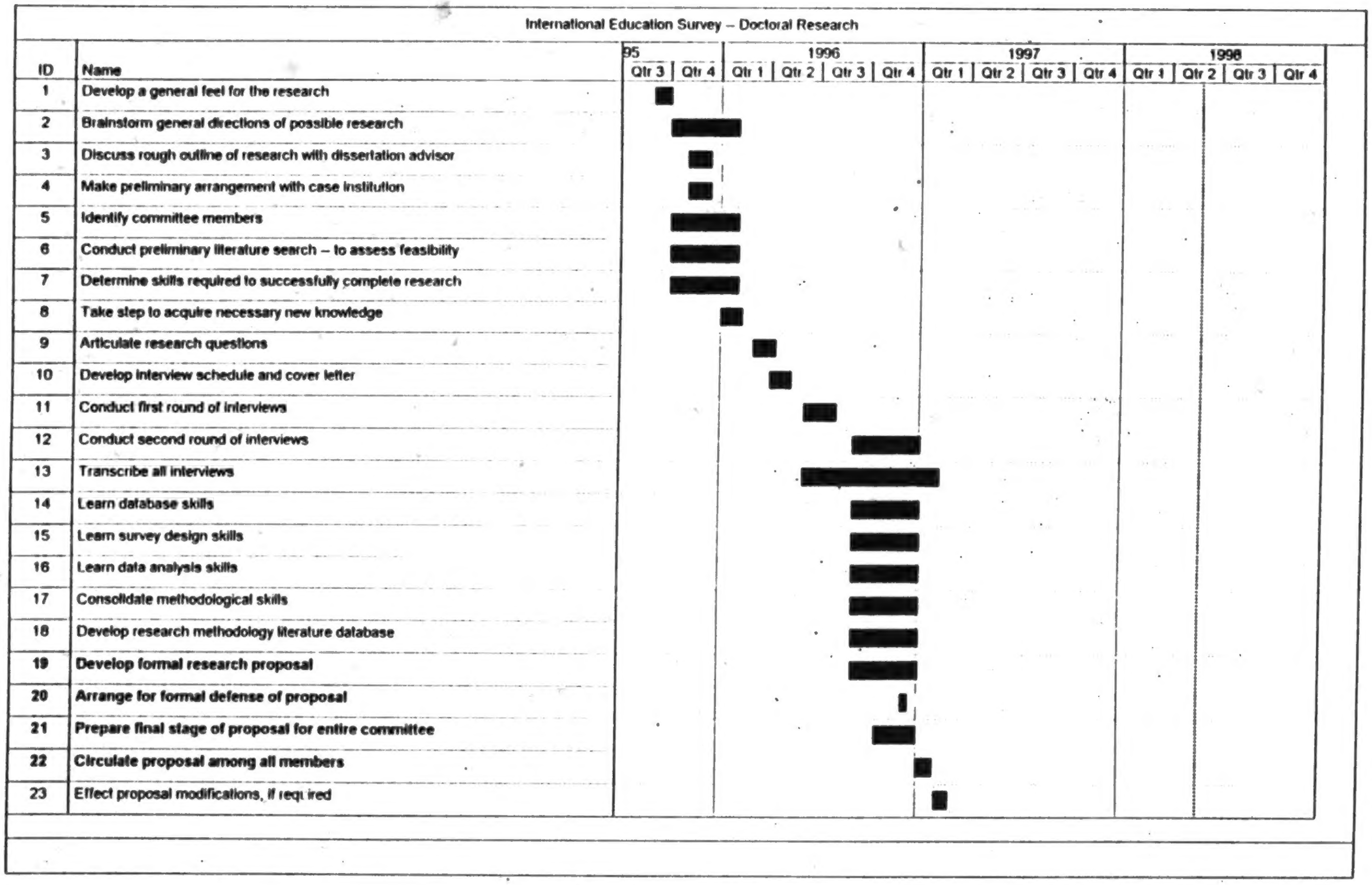
INTERVIEWS OF PRACTITIONERS -- COMBINED THEMATIC ANALYSIS MATRIX

121	In the context of partnership with the industry, industry will focus on the content, and institutions on the pedagogy				✓	
122	In the future, distance delivery will permit DCs delivery of education to LDCs, without the need for personnel from DCs to travel extensively				✓	
123	In the future, institutions should specialize in areas of institutional excellence only			✓		
124	In the future, increased enrollment of international students will be beneficial to the institution -- due to high fee differential in the context of cost-recovery operation		✓			
125	In the future it is very likely that the institution will rely on overseas recruiting field agents		✓			
126	International education is likely not become a highly saleable commodity, it is more likely to be an ideal tool to open doors for Canadian business and industry abroad		✓			
127	Possible future increase of activities in Mexico under NAFTA					✓
128	In the future it is likely that institutions will move into newer areas, via CIDA and other government funding					✓

APPENDIX 3

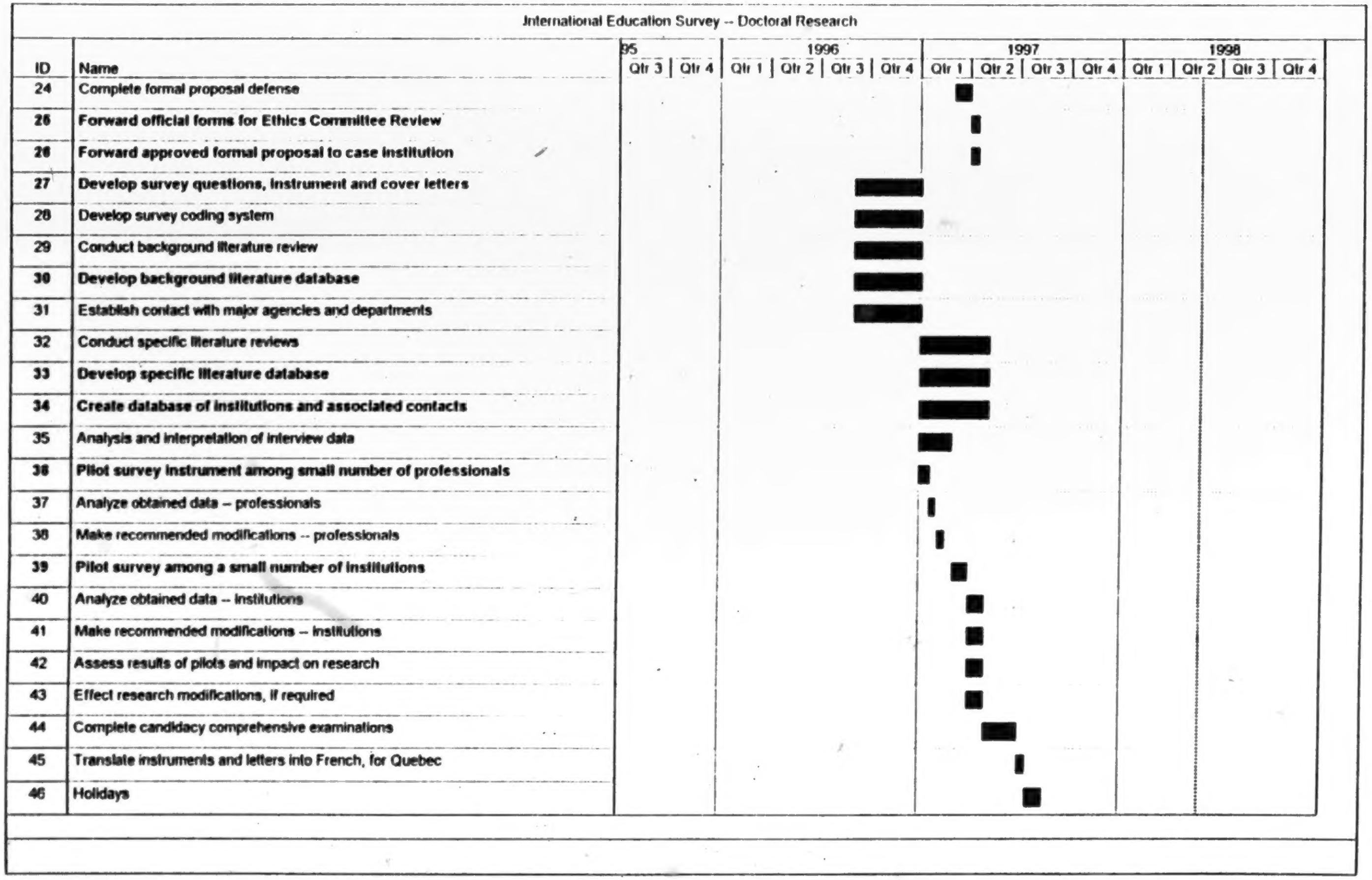
SURVEY CHRONOLOGY

International Education Survey – Doctoral Research



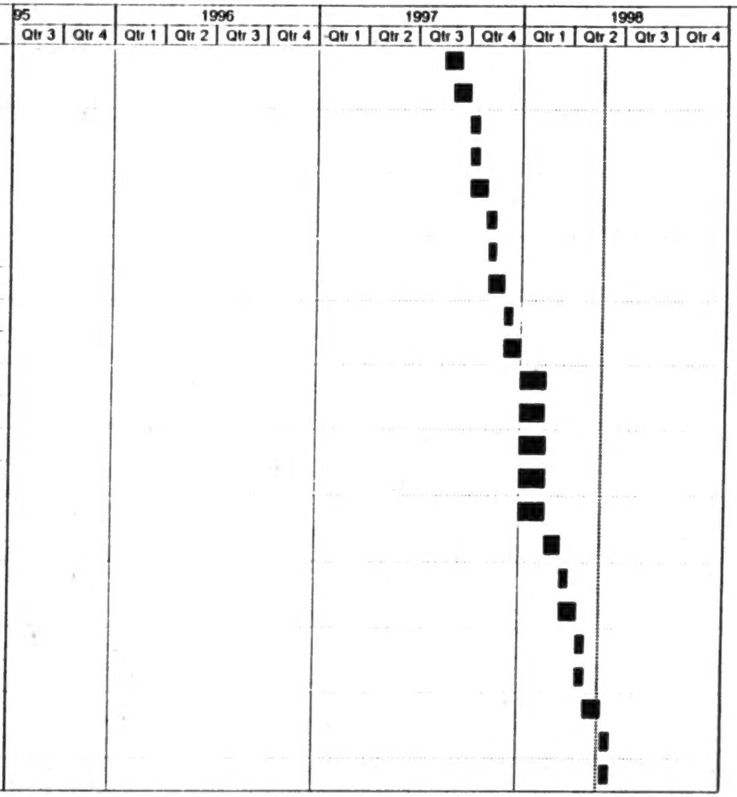
ID	Name
1	Develop a general feel for the research
2	Brainstorm general directions of possible research
3	Discuss rough outline of research with dissertation advisor
4	Make preliminary arrangement with case institution
5	Identify committee members
6	Conduct preliminary literature search – to assess feasibility
7	Determine skills required to successfully complete research
8	Take step to acquire necessary new knowledge
9	Articulate research questions
10	Develop interview schedule and cover letter
11	Conduct first round of interviews
12	Conduct second round of interviews
13	Transcribe all interviews
14	Learn database skills
15	Learn survey design skills
16	Learn data analysis skills
17	Consolidate methodological skills
18	Develop research methodology literature database
19	**Develop formal research proposal**
20	**Arrange for formal defense of proposal**
21	**Prepare final stage of proposal for entire committee**
22	**Circulate proposal among all members**
23	Effect proposal modifications, if required

International Education Survey -- Doctoral Research



ID	Name
24	Complete formal proposal defense
25	**Forward official forms for Ethics Committee Review**
26	**Forward approved formal proposal to case institution**
27	**Develop survey questions, instrument and cover letters**
28	Develop survey coding system
29	Conduct background literature review
30	**Develop background literature database**
31	Establish contact with major agencies and departments
32	Conduct specific literature reviews
33	**Develop specific literature database**
34	**Create database of institutions and associated contacts**
35	Analysis and interpretation of interview data
36	**Pilot survey instrument among small number of professionals**
37	Analyze obtained data -- professionals
38	Make recommended modifications -- professionals
39	**Pilot survey among a small number of institutions**
40	Analyze obtained data -- institutions
41	Make recommended modifications -- institutions
42	Assess results of pilots and impact on research
43	Effect research modifications, if required
44	Complete candidacy comprehensive examinations
45	Translate instruments and letters into French, for Quebec
46	Holidays

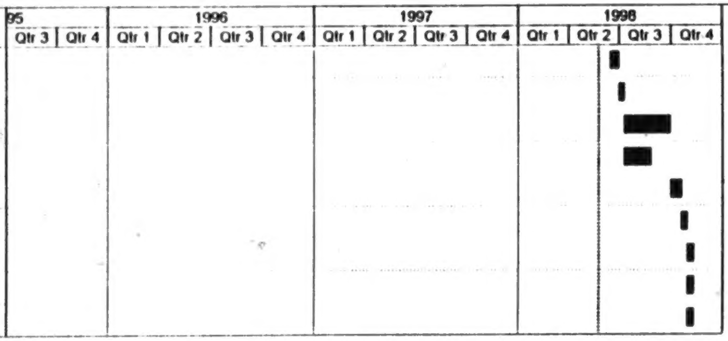
International Education Survey -- Doctoral Research



ID	Name
47	**Original survey mailing**
48	Write dissertation Chapter I -- Introduction and background
49	**Submit Chapter I to dissertation advisor for review**
50	**Survey follow-up #1**
51	Write dissertation Chapter II -- Literature reviews
52	**Submit Chapter II to dissertation advisor for review**
53	**Survey follow-up #2**
54	Write dissertation Chapter III -- Methodology
55	**Submit Chapter III to dissertation advisor for review**
56	Make recommended modifications to Chapters I, II, III
57	Data review
58	Data coding
59	Data analysis
60	Data interpretation
61	Discuss data and interpretation with research methods advisor
62	Write dissertation Chapter IV -- Presentation of data
63	**Submit Chapter IV to dissertation advisor for review**
64	Write dissertation Chapter V -- Discussion
65	**Submit Chapter V to dissertation advisor for review**
66	Make recommended modifications to Chapter IV
67	Write dissertation Chapter VI -- Recommendations, Conclusions, etc.
68	**Submit Chapter VI to dissertation advisor for review**
69	**Make arrangements for dissertation defense**

International Education Survey – Doctoral Research

ID	Name
70	Make recommended modifications to Chapters V and VI
71	Make last adjustments to the finished work and appendix
72	Submit final copies to all committee members
73	Holidays
74	Defend research
75	Make recommended modifications
76	Get final official endorsements and releases
77	Make arrangement for duplication of dissertation
78	Submit dissertation copies to all concerned parties



APPENDIX 4

FINAL VERSION OF SURVEY

UNIVERSITY OF ALBERTA -- FACULTY OF EDUCATION

International Education Involvement of Canadian Public Colleges and Post-Secondary Technical Institutions

Survey by Jacques P. E. Hurabielle -- 1997

INTRODUCTION TO THE SURVEY

The aim of this survey is to gain an understanding of international education activities in Canadian colleges and post-secondary technical institutions. The survey concentrates on the international education department/unit at your institution, its creation, history, staffing, and achievements; as well as on broad demographics pertaining to international students who have frequented your institution. Of particular importance are your insights concerning international education.

The survey comprises 81 questions, categorized in eight sections. Section I investigates the relevancy of the survey to your institution. The remaining sections ask for specific information about: (II) yourself; (III) your institution; (IV) your international education department/unit; (V) international education activities at your institution; (VI) miscellaneous related topics, (VII) opinions; and (VIII) suggestions. Answering the survey will take about thirty minutes of your time.

INSTRUCTIONS

If your institution does not participate in overseas projects and does not teach or train international students on campus, respond to question #1 only. If your institution is involved to any degree in either of these activities, please complete all survey questions.

In this survey, definitions apply:
projects: any form of educational or technical initiative overseas.
programs: organized studies using on-campus instruction.
activities: include both projects and programs.
North: developed, industrialized countries, or First World
South: less developed or developing countries, or Third World

SECTION I -- RELEVANCY TO YOUR INSTITUTION

1. **INDICATE WITH A √ YOUR INSTITUTION'S INVOLVEMENT IN INTERNATIONAL EDUCATION.**
(Mark as many boxes as needed)

Item		Yes	No
A	**Participates in overseas projects**		
B	**Teaches/trains international students on campus** *(Do not include landed immigrants)*		

If you answered "NO" to both items, please stop here and return the survey.
If you answered "YES" to item A or B, please answer the following questions.

SECTION II -- ABOUT RESPONDENT

2. **WHAT IS YOUR ADMINISTRATIVE TITLE?** ______________________________ .

3. **HOW MANY YEARS OF INTERNATIONAL EXPERIENCE DID YOU HAVE BEFORE JOINING YOUR INSTITUTION?** _____ .

4. **HOW MANY YEARS HAVE YOU PARTICIPATED IN INTERNATIONAL ACTIVITIES WITH YOUR INSTITUTION?** _____ .

5. **EDUCATION.** *(Please indicate with a ✓ your level of education).*

Journeyman / Trade certification	
Technical / Technology diploma	
Undergraduate degree	
Graduate Degree	

6. **WHAT IS YOUR PRIMARY AREA OF ACADEMIC TRAINING?** *(Indicate your answer with a ✓)*

Agriculture / Fisheries		Marketing	
Business		Natural Resources / Earth Sciences	
Economics		Political Sciences	
Education		Sciences	
Engineering		Trades / Apprenticeships	
Health Sciences		Others*	
International Education/Development			

* *If "Others" was one answer, please give a brief explanation in the space provided below.*

7. **WHICH LANGUAGES DO YOU SPEAK?** *(Please indicate with a ✓ relative levels of proficiency).*

	Language	Basic	Intermediate	Advanced
1				
2				
3				
4	Others *(specify)*			

SECTION III -- ABOUT INSTITUTION

Please provide a brief description of your institution by answering the following:

8. **INSTITUTION WAS FOUNDED IN: 19 ____ .**

9. **INSTITUTION IS LOCATED IN THE PROVINCE/TERRITORY OF: ______________________ .**

10. **POPULATION OF CITY / TOWN WHERE INSTITUTION IS LOCATED: ______________ .**

11. **TOTAL NUMBER OF STUDENTS (INCLUDING INTERNATIONAL AND OTHERS) AT INSTITUTION: ___________ .**

12. **TOTAL NUMBER OF FULL-TIME STAFF MEMBERS (ADMINISTRATIVE, INSTRUCTIONAL AND SUPPORT) WORKING AT INSTITUTION: __________ .**

SECTION IV -- ABOUT INTERNATIONAL EDUCATION DEPARTMENT/UNIT

Provide a brief description of your international education department/unit by answering the following questions. **Please complete all following questions even if the department/unit handling international activities is known under a name other than "Department of International Education".**

13. **INSTITUTION HAS A DEPARTMENT/UNIT SPECIALIZING IN INTERNATIONAL EDUCATION**

Yes No

14. **IF IT IS NOT CALLED "DEPARTMENT OF INTERNATIONAL EDUCATION", WHAT IS THE NAME OF DEPARTMENT/UNIT RESPONSIBLE FOR INTERNATIONAL ACTIVITIES?** *(Write name in space provided)*

____

15. **DEPARTMENT/UNIT WAS ESTABLISHED IN 19 ____**

16. **DOES DEPARTMENT/UNIT CURRENTLY HAVE ADEQUATE STAFF TO EFFECTIVELY HANDLE INTERNATIONAL EDUCATION ACTIVITIES?**

Yes No

17. **HOW MANY FULL-TIME STAFF (ADMINISTRATIVE, INSTRUCTIONAL AND SUPPORT) DOES DEPARTMENT/UNIT EMPLOY? ________**

18. **PERSONNEL ON LOAN TO DEPARTMENT/UNIT ARE SELECTED BY:** *(Indicate answers with a ✓)*

Mode of selection	
Open competition (internal)	
Appointment by administration	

19. **DO YOU EVER HIRE CONSULTANTS FOR OVERSEAS POSTING RATHER THAN USING PERSONNEL FROM THE INSTITUTION?**

Yes No

20. **HOW IMPORTANT ARE THE FOLLOWING SKILLS FOR STAFF TEACHING INTERNATIONAL STUDENTS AT YOUR INSTITUTION?** *(Indicate answers with a ✓)*

	Very	Moderately	Not
Foreign language proficiency			
Cross-cultural ability			
Practical/Applied ability			
Academic ability			
Previous international experience			

21. **HOW IMPORTANT ARE THE FOLLOWING SKILLS FOR STAFF ASSIGNED TO OVERSEAS DUTIES?** *(Indicate answers with a ✓)*

	Very	Moderately	Not
Foreign language proficiency			
Cross-cultural ability			
Practical/Applied ability			
Academic ability			
Previous international experience			

22. **DOES DEPARTMENT/UNIT OPERATE PRIMARILY ON A COST-RECOVERY BASIS?**

Yes No

23. **IF YOU ANSWERED "NO" TO QUESTION #22, HOW ELSE IS DEPARTMENT/UNIT FINANCED?** *(Write in space below)*

24. **IF DEPARTMENT/UNIT IS EITHER FULLY OR PARTIALLY FUNDED BY YOUR INSTITUTION, WHAT IS THE % OF TOTAL INSTITUTIONAL BUDGET ASSIGNED TO IT?** ______ %

25. **% OF TOTAL INSTITUTIONAL REVENUE GENERATED BY DEPARTMENT/UNIT IS** ______ %

26. **DOES DEPARTMENT/UNIT FUNCTION UNDER AN ADVISORY BOARD COMMITTEE OVERSEEING INTERNATIONAL ACTIVITIES?**

Yes No

27. **IF YOU ANSWERED YES TO QUESTION #26, TO WHICH OF THE FOLLOWING GROUPS DO MEMBERS OF THAT BOARD/COMMITTEE BELONG?** *(Indicate your answer by a ✓ -- select as many answers as necessary)*

Institution academic staff	
Institution administration	
Canadian business and industry	
International agencies representatives	
*Others	

* *If "Others" was one answer, give a brief explanation:*

SECTION V -- ABOUT INTERNATIONAL EDUCATION

28. **INSTITUTION CONSIDERS INTERNATIONAL EDUCATION AN ACTIVITY WHICH IS**

Primary	**Yes** ☐	**No** ☐
Secondary	**Yes** ☐	**No** ☐
Complementary	**Yes** ☐	**No** ☐
Unimportant	**Yes** ☐	**No** ☐

29. **MAJOR REASONS FOR INSTITUTION ORIGINALLY BECOMING INVOLVED IN INTERNATIONAL EDUCATION ACTIVITIES.** *(Mark as many boxes as needed)*

	✓	**Brief Explanations / Comments**
Informal foreign request		
Formal foreign request		
Federal policy or initiative		
Provincial policy or initiative		
Government agency request		
Non-government request		
Local initiative		
Institution initiative		
Personal initiative		
***Others**		

* *If "Others" was one answer, give a brief explanation:*

30. **PERIOD DURING WHICH INSTITUTION FIRST BECAME INVOLVED IN INTERNATIONAL EDUCATION ACTIVITIES.** *(Mark only 1 box).*

	1960 - 1970	**1971 - 1985**	**1986 - present**
Start of international education activities			

31. **PREDOMINANT NATURE OF INTERNATIONAL ACTIVITIES DURING LISTED PERIODS.** *(Mark as many boxes as needed)*

	1960 - 1970	**1971-1985**	**1986 - present**
Teaching of international students on campus			
Overseas work (projects)			

32. **IMPORTANCE GIVEN BY INSTITUTION TO FOLLOWING FUNCTIONS OF INTERNATIONAL EDUCATION.** *(Mark as many boxes as needed)*

Functions	**Very**	**Moderate**	**Not**
Facilitate economic globalization			
Form human capital in recipient nation			
Modernize recipient nation			
Promote social equality in recipient nation			
Promote economic growth of recipient nation			
Redistribute income in recipient nation			
*Others			

* *If "Others" was one answer, please give a brief explanation :*

33. **INSTITUTION'S MAJOR GEOGRAPHICAL AREAS OF INTERNATIONAL EDUCATION INVOLVEMENT OVER TIME.** *(Mark as many boxes as needed)*

	1960 - 1970	**1971 - 1985**	**1986 - present**
Caribbean			
China			
Eastern Europe			
Africa			
India			
Central America			
South America			
Oceania			
South East Asia			
Others*			

* *If "Others" was one answer, please give a brief explanation:*

34. **INSTITUTION'S MAJOR FIELD OF FOCUS IN INTERNATIONAL EDUCATION DURING LISTED PERIODS.** *(Mark as many boxes as needed)*

	1960 - 1970	1971 - 1985	1986 - present
Agriculture			
Applied arts			
Architecture/Civil Eng. Tech.			
Basic sciences			
Business			
Computing/Information			
Electrical/Electronics/Telecom Tech.			
Environmental sciences			
Fisheries			
Health sciences			
Hospitality/Tourism			
Mechanical Engineering Tech.			
Natural resources			
Textile			
Trades/Apprenticeship			
Others*			

* *If "Others" was one answer, please give a brief explanation*

35. **DO FIELDS OF FOCUS SPECIFIED IN QUESTION #34 CORRESPOND PRIMARILY TO MAJOR INSTITUTIONAL STRENGTHS?**

Yes No

36. **TYPE OF PROGRAMS MOST COMMONLY OFFERED TO INTERNATIONAL STUDENTS DURING THE LISTED PERIODS.** Programs refer to organized studies using on-campus instruction. *(Mark as many boxes as needed)*

	1960 - 1970	1971 - 1985	1986 - present
Enrollment in regular programs			
Enrollment in custom programs			
Teaching practicum / Training trainers			
Others*			

* *If "Others" was one answer, please give a brief explanation :*

37. **LENGTH OF PROGRAMS COMMONLY OFFERED TO INTERNATIONAL STUDENTS DURING LISTED PERIODS.** Programs refer to organized studies using on-campus instruction. *(Mark as many boxes as needed)*

MONTHS	1960 - 1970	1971 -- 1985	1986 - present
< 3			
3 to 6			
7 to 12			
13 to 18			
19 to 24			
> 24			

38. **FUNCTIONS OF PROGRAMS COMMONLY OFFERED TO INTERNATIONAL STUDENTS DURING LISTED PERIODS.** Programs refer to organized studies using on-campus instruction. *(Mark as many boxes as needed)*

	1960 - 1970	1971 - 1985	1986 - present
Initial training			
Specialization			
Upgrading			
Career change			
Remedial			
Others*			

* *If "Others" was one answer, give a brief explanation*

39. **MAJOR TYPES OF INTERNATIONAL PROJECTS UNDERTAKEN DURING LISTED PERIODS.** Projects refer to any educational or technical initiative overseas. *(Mark as many boxes as needed)*

	1960 - 1970	1971 - 1985	1986 - present
Curriculum Development			
Human Resources Development			
Needs Analysis			
Program Planning			
Program Evaluation			
Teaching students abroad			
Technical Assistance			
Training Trainers			
Others*			

* *If "Others" was one answer, give a brief explanation :*

40. **TYPICAL LENGTH OF PROJECTS UNDERTAKEN BY INSTITUTION DURING LISTED PERIODS.** Projects refer to any educational or technical initiative overseas *(Mark as many boxes as needed)*

MONTHS	**1960 - 1970**	**1971- 1985**	**1986 - present**
< 3			
3 to 6			
7 to 12			
13 to 18			
19 to 24			
> 24			

41. **TOTAL NUMBER OF INTERNATIONAL EDUCATION PROJECTS UNDERTAKEN BY INSTITUTION DURING LISTED PERIODS.** Projects refer to any form of educational or technical initiative overseas.

	1960 - 1970	**1971 - 1985**	**1986 - present**
Number of projects			

42. **WHEN DOES FOLLOW-UP OF COMPLETED PROJECTS TAKE PLACE?** Projects refer to any technical or educational initiative overseas. *(Mark as many boxes as needed)*

Follow-up after Completion	
Immediately	
1 to 3 years	
> 3 years	
No follow-up takes place	
*Others	

* *If "Others" was one answer, please give a brief explanation :*

43. **SUCCESS RATE OF INSTITUTION'S INTERNATIONAL ACTIVITIES.** Success is defined as client satisfaction -- expressed by minimal complaint, and no request for corrective or supplementary training after student graduation.

Success rate	**Programs**	**Projects**
Very good		
Good		
Moderate		
Poor		
Very poor		

44. **WHO EXPLICITLY EVALUATES INTERNATIONAL EDUCATION PERFORMANCE OF YOUR INSTITUTION?** *(Mark as many boxes as needed).*

International Education Department/Unit	
Administration	
Provincial/Territorial international agencies	
Federal international agencies	
Canadian business/industry	
International students graduated from programs	
International clients involved in projects	
Foreign governments in countries clients are from	
Industry collaborators in areas clients are from	
* Others	

* *If "Others" was one answer, give a brief explanation :*

45. **ORIGIN OF INTERNATIONAL STUDENT POPULATION ATTENDING INSTITUTION DURING LISTED PERIODS**. *Do NOT include landed immigrants. (Please mark with a ✓ as many boxes as needed)*

	1960 - 1970	1971 - 1985	1986 - present
Caribbean			
China			
Eastern Europe			
Africa			
India			
Central America			
South America			
Oceania			
South East Asia			
Others*			

* *If "Others" was one answer, please give a brief explanation .*

46. **TO WHICH CATEGORY DOES THE MAJORITY OF YOUR INTERNATIONAL STUDENTS BELONG?** *(Please indicate your answer with a ✓)*

Within international projects	
Individually sponsored by agencies or governments	
Registering as individual clients, and paying their own fees	

47. **DURING PERIODS LISTED, WERE INTERNATIONAL STUDENTS PREDOMINANTLY FUNCTIONING AS INDIVIDUALS OR AS MEMBERS OF SPONSORED GROUPS?** *(Please mark as many boxes as needed)*

	1960 - 1970	**1971 - 1985**	**1986 - present**
Individuals			
Members of groups			

48. **NUMBER OF INTERNATIONAL STUDENTS ATTENDING INSTITUTION DURING LISTED PERIODS.** *(Do NOT include landed immigrants.).*

	1960 - 1970	**1971 - 1985**	**1986 - present**
Number of students			

49. **DOES INSTITUTION HAVE ENGLISH-AS-SECOND-LANGUAGE AVAILABLE TO INTERNATIONAL STUDENTS EXPERIENCING WEAKNESS IN ENGLISH?**

Yes ☐ No ☐

50. **DURING PERIODS LISTED, WHAT CREDENTIALS WERE OBTAINED BY INTERNATIONAL STUDENTS?** *(Mark as many boxes as needed)*

	1960 - 1970	**1971 - 1985**	**1986 - present**
Standard diploma			
Standard certificate			
International diploma			
International certificate			
Grade statements			
Others*			

* *If "Others" was one answer, please give a brief explanation.*

51. **IF, IN QUESTION #50, YOU INDICATED THAT INTERNATIONAL STUDENTS RECEIVE INTERNATIONAL DIPLOMAS OR CERTIFICATES, ARE THESE CREDENTIALS EQUIVALENT TO THOSE OBTAINED BY CANADIAN STUDENTS TAKING THE SAME PROGRAMS?**

Yes No

52. **WHEN DOES FOLLOW-UP OF GRADUATED INTERNATIONAL STUDENTS TAKE PLACE?** "Graduated" refers to students who have completed a program of studies and received official credentials upon completion. *(Mark as many boxes as needed)*

Follow-up after Graduation	
Immediately	
1 to 3 years	
> 3 years	
No follow-up takes place	
*Others	

* *If "Others" was one answer, please give a brief explanation .*

53. **PRIMARY INTENT(S) OF INTERNATIONAL EDUCATION DURING LISTED PERIODS.** *(Mark as many boxes as needed)*

	1960 - 1970	**1971 - 1985**	**1986 - present**
Expand trade			
Partnership with Canadian business / industry.			
Partnership with foreign business / industry			
Generate revenue			
Internationalize institution's curriculum			
Internationalize education in foreign countries			
Meet federal commitments			
Meet provincial/territorial commitments			
Offset staff reduction at institution			
Provide humanitarian assistance			
Provide staff development			
Others*			

* *If "Others" was one answer, please give a brief explanation .*

54. **DOES INSTITUTION PARTICIPATE IN JOINT INTERNATIONAL EDUCATION VENTURES WITH PARTNER INSTITUTIONS IN THE SOUTH?** *(For a definition of the South, please refer to instructions at the beginning of the survey).*

Yes No

55. **IF YOU ANSWERED "YES" TO QUESTION #54, DO PARTNERS IN THE SOUTH GRANT CREDENTIALS ENDORSED JOINTLY BY YOUR INSTITUTION AND THEMSELVES?** *(For a definition of the South, refer to instructions at the beginning of the survey).*

Yes No

56. **IF INSTITUTION DOES NOT GRANT MUTUALLY ENDORSED CREDENTIALS, DOES IT PLAN TO DO SO BETWEEN NOW AND 2010?**

Yes No

SECTION VI -- MISCELLANEOUS

57. **INSTITUTION'S MAJOR INTERNATIONAL EDUCATION MARKETING STRATEGY USED DURING THE LISTED PERIODS.** *(Mark as many boxes as needed)*

	1960 - 1970	1971 - 1985	1986 - present
None			
Reactive			
Proactive			

If you selected* **"Proactive" *as one answer, describe briefly the nature of these strategies :*

58. **DO YOU USE LOCAL RESIDENTS OF FOREIGN COUNTRIES TO MARKET / PROMOTE INTERNATIONAL EDUCATION SERVICES ABROAD?**

Yes No

59. **DOES INTERNATIONAL EDUCATION DEPARTMENT/UNIT HAVE A WEB-SITE ON THE INTERNET?**

Yes No

60. **DOES INSTITUTION PLAN TO REDUCE OR TERMINATE ITS INTERNATIONAL EDUCATION ACTIVITIES IN THE FORESEEABLE FUTURE?**

Yes No

61. **IF YOU RESPONDED "YES" TO QUESTION #60, WHY?** *(Write answer in the space provided).*

62. **DOES INSTITUTION PLAN TO REVIEW/UPDATE ITS POLICY STANCE TO INTERNATIONAL EDUCATION ACTIVITIES IN THE FORESEEABLE FUTURE?**

Yes No

63. **IF YOU RESPONDED "YES" TO QUESTION #62. PLEASE EXPLAIN.** *(Write answer in the space provided).*

64. **DO YOU PROMOTE ALL YOUR PROGRAMS EQUALLY IN THE INTERNATIONAL MARKETPLACE?**

Yes No

SECTION VII -- RESPONDENT OPINIONS

65. **GIVE YOUR OPINION OF CANADIAN COLLEGE AND POST-SECONDARY TECHNICAL EDUCATION.**

Very poor ☐ Poor ☐ Moderate ☐ Good ☐ Very Good ☐

66. **FORECAST PERFORMANCE OF CANADIAN COLLEGE AND POST-SECONDARY TECHNICAL EDUCATION BETWEEN NOW AND 2010?**

Very poor ☐ Poor ☐ Moderate ☐ Good ☐ Very Good ☐

67. **WHAT ARE CANADA' S CURRENT STRENGTHS IN INTERNATIONAL COLLEGE AND POST-SECONDARY TECHNICAL EDUCATION?** *(Write answer in space provided)*

68. **WHAT ARE CANADA' S CURRENT WEAKNESSES IN INTERNATIONAL COLLEGE AND POST-SECONDARY TECHNICAL EDUCATION?** *(Write answer in space provided)*

69. **FORECAST CANADA' S STRENGTHS IN INTERNATIONAL COLLEGE AND POST-SECONDARY TECHNICAL EDUCATION BETWEEN NOW AND 2010.** *(Write answer in space provided)*

70. **FORECAST CANADA' S WEAKNESSES IN INTERNATIONAL COLLEGE AND POST-SECONDARY TECHNICAL EDUCATION BETWEEN NOW AND 2010.** *(Write answer in space provided)*

71. **WHAT ARE UPCOMING OPPORTUNITIES FOR CANADIAN COLLEGES AND POST-**

SECONDARY TECHNICAL INSTITUTIONS IN INTERNATIONAL EDUCATION? *(Write your answer in space provided)*

72. **WHAT COULD BE OBSTACLES TO BENEFITING FROM OPPORTUNITIES MENTIONED IN QUESTION #71?** *(Write your answer in space provided)*

73. **IN WHICH GEOGRAPHIC REGION(S) SHOULD THE DEPARTMENT/UNIT OF INTERNATIONAL EDUCATION OF YOUR INSTITUTION BECOME INVOLVED BETWEEN NOW AND 2010?** *(Write answer in space provided)*

74. **WHICH PART OF THE WORLD IS CURRENTLY THE PRIMARY CONSUMER OF CANADIAN INTERNATIONAL COLLEGE AND POST-SECONDARY TECHNICAL EDUCATION?** *(Write answer in the space provided)*

75. **WHICH PART OF THE WORLD WILL BECOME THE PRIMARY CONSUMER OF CANADIAN INTERNATIONAL COLLEGE AND POST-SECONDARY TECHNICAL EDUCATION BETWEEN NOW AND 2010?** *(Write answer in space provided)*

76. **HOW WELL IS CANADIAN INTERNATIONAL COLLEGE AND POST-SECONDARY TECHNICAL EDUCATION ORGANIZED / COORDINATED AT THE FOLLOWING LEVELS?** *(Please indicate your answer with a √)*

	Very poor	**Poor**	**Moderate**	**Good**	**Very good**
Institutional					
Local					
Provincial / Territorial					
National					
International					

77. **DO YOU PERCEIVE INTERNATIONAL EDUCATION TO PROMOTE SALES OF CANADIAN GOODS AND SERVICES ABROAD?**

Yes No

78. **DO YOU BELIEVE THAT YOUR INSTITUTION'S INTERNATIONAL PROJECTS HAVE HAD A SUSTAINED POSITIVE ECONOMIC IMPACT ON RECIPIENT COUNTRIES?**

Yes No

79. **HOW WOULD YOU RATE YOUR INSTITUTION'S GENERAL PERFORMANCE IN INTERNATIONAL EDUCATION DURING THE LISTED PERIODS?** *(Please indicate your answers with a √)*

	1960 - 1970	**1971 - 1985**	**1986 - present**
Very poor			
Poor			
Average			
Good			
Very Good			

SECTION VIII -- COMMENTS

80. **Make any suggestion you feel is of importance to the future of college and post-secondary technical international education.** *(Feel free to attach additional sheets).*

81. **COMMENTS ON SURVEY**

If you have comments about this survey, please write them in the space provided below. *(Feel free to attach additional sheets).*

Thank you for your time and valuable cooperation

Jacques

APPENDIX 5

ANNOUNCING LETTER

September 1997

Dear Sir / Dear Madam,

My name is Jacques Hurabielle, I am a doctoral candidate with the Department of Educational Policy Studies (International Education route) at the University of Alberta, in Edmonton. I am also an adult educator with twenty-five years of experience in post-secondary technical education in Canada and abroad. The purpose of this letter is to announce the impending arrival of a major population survey I am presently conducting of Canadian colleges and post-secondary technical institutions. The survey should arrive at your door within the next three weeks.

Although major studies have been conducted on the involvement of Canadian universities in the field of international education, little -- if anything -- has been done on colleges and post-secondary technical institutions. The purpose of my research is to fill that void. My intention is to document international education activities in Canadian colleges and post-secondary technical institutions since the early 1960s, as well as to outline possible trends and directions.

Your response to the forthcoming survey is of paramount importance to my research. Your personal experience is a key component of the collective Canadian international experience. By taking your experience into account, a better understanding of the field is likely. Results of the study promise to be useful to providers such as your institution, as well as to international clients. Your responding to my survey is an investment in our collective understanding of Canadian colleges and post-secondary technical international education.

Once the study is fully completed (Fall of 1998), the final results will be available upon request to institutions which have kindly responded to the survey. This post-research feedback will take the form of an executive summary, appropriately supported by graphical representations of data. To receive a copy of this executive summary, kindly send a request to the e-mail address listed below.

Thank you in advance for your interest in my research, and for the time devoted to the forthcoming survey.

Sincerely,

Jacques Hurabielle
Doctoral Candidate -- Educational Policy Studies -- University of Alberta
P.O. Box 34037 Kingsway Mall Post Office, AB T5G 3G4
Residence: (403) 987-2964 / E-mail: jhurabie@gpu.srv.ualberta.ca

APPENDIX 6

ACCOMPANYING LETTER

September 1997

Dear Sir / Dear Madam,

My name is Jacques Hurabielle and I am a doctoral candidate in Educational Policy Studies (International Education route) at the University of Alberta, in Edmonton. I am also an adult educator with twenty-five years of experience in post-secondary technical education in Canada and abroad. The purpose of this letter is to request your cooperation by completing the attached survey.

My objectives are to document the involvement of Canadian colleges and post-secondary technical institutions in international education since the 1960s. In addition to examining history, possible future trends and directions will be explored. If you need additional information about my research -- in the form of a concise version of my proposal, please contact me via e-mail at the address provided below. The aim of my survey is to gain an understanding of international education activities in Canadian colleges and post-secondary technical institutions. The survey concentrates on the international department/unit at your institution, its creation, history, staffing, and achievement; as well as on broad demographics pertaining to international students who have frequented your institution since the department/unit was created. Of great importance are your insights concerning international education.

Your experience, and that of your institution are key components of the collective Canadian international experience. Results of this research promise to be useful to practitioners and institutions. Results should be informative to international clients -- individual students or foreign sponsoring agencies and governments. Responding to the survey is an investment in our collective understanding of Canadian colleges and post-secondary technical international education. The study has been approved by the University of Alberta Ethics Committee. Respondents' consent will be indicated by answering the survey. Confidentiality will be ensured by not asking for respondents names or mentioning institutions by name in the writing. As you will notice, questionnaires have been numbered serially. This number will only be used by data entry clerks to ascertain who has responded and who has not, thereby permitting follow-up of non-respondents, as well as to communicate research finding to only those institutions which have taken part in the survey. Serial numbers will not be used for any other purpose -- either by myself or support clerks.

Once the study is fully completed (Fall of 1998), the final results will be available upon request to institutions which have kindly responded to the survey. This post-research feedback will take the form of an executive summary, appropriately supported by graphical representations of data. To receive a copy of this executive summary, kindly send a request to the e-mail address listed below.

Thank you in advance for your interest in my research, and for taking the time to answer the attached survey. If you have any questions, please contact me by e-mail or telephone (addresses and numbers given below). Please accept the enclosed lottery ticket (hopefully a winner!) as a small token of appreciation for your assistance.

Sincerely,

Jacques Hurabielle
Doctoral Candidate -- Educational Policy Studies -- University of Alberta
P.O. Box 34037 Kingsway Mall Post Office, AB T5G 3G4
Residence: (403) 987-2964 / E-mail: jhurabie@gpu.srv.ualberta.ca

APPENDIX 7

POSTER PAGE ASKING FOR HELP

PLEASE HELP!

September 1997

Dear Sir / Dear Madam,

Due to the many possible forms of organization under which international education is found in Canadian colleges and post-secondary technical institutions, my survey and accompanying letter have been addressed to the President Office. If your office does not administer international education, please kindly forward the survey to the most appropriate unit, department or person in your institution.

Thank you!

Jacques Hurabielle

jhurabie@gpu.srv.ualberta.ca

APPENDIX 8

PROMPTERS

REMINDER

Date:

Dear Sir / Dear Madam,

In the last ____ weeks you have received a comprehensive survey covering international education activities at your institution. Although I fully realize that your schedule is busy, please take the time of contributing to my research. Awareness of your international education experience is vital to gaining a true perspective of the field in the Canadian post-secondary technical context. Please kindly complete the survey and return in the self-addressed stamped envelope provided.

Thank you!

Jacques L. E. Hurabielle

In the unlikely event you have not received the survey, please request a new copy by contacting me via e-mail at jhurabie@gpu.srv.ualberta.ca

APPENDIX 9

LIST OF SURVEYED INSTITUTIONS

COLLEGES SURVEYED

1. British Columbia Institute of Technology (BCIT)
3700 Willingdon Avenue
Burnaby, British Columbia
V5G 3H2
Tel (604) 434-5734
Fax (604)434-6243

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2. Camosun College
3100 Foul Bay Road
Victoria, British Columbia
V8P 4X8
Tel (604) 370-3000
Fax (604) 370-3660

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3. Capilano College
2055 Purcell Way
North Vancouver, British Columbia
V7J 3H5
Tel (604) 986-1911
Fax (604) 984-4985

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4. College of New Caledonia
3330 - 22nd Avenue
Prince George, British Columbia
V2N 1P8
Tel (604) 561-5825
Fax (604) 561-5829

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5. College of the Rockies (East Kootenay - Community College)
2700 College Way
Box 8500
Cranbrook, British Columbia
V1C 5L7
Tel (604) 489-8202
Fax (604) 489-8253

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6. Columbia College
6037 Marlborough Avenue
Burnaby, British Columbia
V5H 3L6
Tel (604) 430-6422
Fax (604) 439-0548

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7. Coquitlam College
516 Brookmere Ave.
Coquitlam, British Columbia
V3J 1W9
Tel (604) 939-6633
Fax (604) 939-0336

8. Douglas College
700 Royal Avenue
P.O. Box 2503
New Westminster, British Columbia
V3L 5B2
Tel (604) 527-5400
Fax (604) 527-5641

9. Kwantlen College
13479 - 77th Avenue
P.O. Box 9030
Surrey, British Columbia
V3T 5H8
Tel (604) 599-2100
Fax (604) 599-2068

10. Langara College
100 West 49th Avenue
Vancouver, British Columbia
V5Y 2Z6
Tel (604) 323-5215
Fax (604) 323-5597

11. Malaspina University-College
900 Fifth Street
Nanaimo, British Columbia
V9R 5S5
Tel (604) 755-8710
Fax (604) 755-8725

12. Nicola Valley Institute of Technology
1999 Voght Avenue
P.O. Box 399
Merritt, British Columbia
V0K 2B0
Tel (604) 378-3310
Fax (604) 378-3332

13. North Island College
2300 Ryan Road
Courtenay, British Columbia
V9N 8N6
Tel (604) 334-5270
Fax (604) 334-5269

14. Northwest Community College
5331 McConnell Ave.
Terrace, British Columbia
V8G 4C2
Tel (604) 635-6511
Fax (604) 635-3511

15. Okanagan University College
North Kelowna Campus
3333 College Way
Kelowna, British Columbia
V1V 1V7
Tel (604) 862-5421
Fax (604) 860-8806

16. Selkirk College
301 Frank Beinder Way
Box 1200
Castlegar, British Columbia
VlN 3Jl
Tel (604) 365-7292
Fax (604) 365-6568

17. Vancouver Community College
1155 East Broadway
Box 24700 Station C
Vancouver, British Columbia
V5T 4N4
Tel (604) 871-7161
Fax (604) 871-7200

18. Yukon College
P.O. Box 2799
Whitehorse, Yukon
YlA 5K4
Tel (403) 668-8800
Fax (403) 668-8896

19. Alberta College
10050 Macdonald Drive
Edmonton, Alberta
T5J 2B7
Tel (403) 428-185
Fax (403) 424-6371

20. Alberta Vocational College - Calgary
332 - 6th Avenue S.E.
Calgary, Alberta
T2G 4S6
Tel (403) 297-4981
Fax (403) 297-4847

21. Alberta Vocational College - Edmonton
10215 - 108th Street

Edmonton, Albert
T5J 1L6
Tel (403) 427-5444
Fax (403) 427-5484

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22. Aurora College
199 McDougal Rd
Box 1290
Fort Smith, Northwest Territories
X0E 0P0
Tel (403) 872-7009
Fax (403) 872-4730

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23. Fairview College
11235-99th Ave.
Box 3000
Fairview, Alberta
T0H 1L0
Tel (403) 835-6600
Fax (403) 835-6698

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24. Grande Prairie Regional College
10726 - 106th Avenue
Grande Prairie, Alberta
T8V 4C4
Tel (403) 539-2911
Fax (403) 539-2749

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25. Grant MacEwan Community College
10700-104th Avenue
Box 1796
Edmonton, Alberta
T5J 4S2
Tel (403) 497-5401
Fax (403) 497-5405

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26. Keyano college
8115 Franklin Avenue
Fort McMurray, Alberta
T9H 2H7
Tel (403) 791-4850
Fax (403) 791-4841

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27. Lakeland Colleg
Vermilion Campus
5707 - 47th Avenue West
Vermilion, Alberta
T9X 1K5
Tel (403) 853-8510
Fax (403) 853-4374

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28. Lethbridge Community College

3000 College Drive South
Lethbridge, Alberta
TIK IL6
Tel (403) 320-3210
Fax (403) 320-1461

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29. Medicine Hat College
299 College Driv
Medicine Hat, Alberta
TIA 3Y6
Tel (403) 529-3811
Fax (403) 526-7750

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30. Mount Royal College
4825 Richard Road S.W.
Calgary, Alberta
T3E 6K6
Tel (403) 240-6111
Fax (403) 240-6698

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31. Northern Alberta Institute of Technology (NAIT)
11762 - l06th Street
Edmonton, Alberta
T5G 2R1
Tel (403) 471-7701
Fax (403) 471-8583

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32. Nunavut Arctic College
Aeroplex Building
Box 160
Iqaluit, Northwest Territories
X0A 0H0
Tel (819) 979-4114
Fax (819) 979-4118

---

33. Olds Colleg
4500-50 St.
Olds, Alberta
T4H 1R6
Tel (403) 556-8301
Fax (403) 556-4698

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34. Red Deer College
56th Avenue - 32nd Street
Red Deer, Alberta
T4N 5H5
Tel (403) 342-3300
Fax (403) 340-8940

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35. Southern Alberta Institute of Technology (SAIT)
130l-16th Avenue N.W.
Calgary, Alberta

T2M 0L4
Tel (403) 284-8110
Fax (403) 284-8940

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36. Assiniboine Community College
1430 Victoria Ave. E
P.O. Box 935
Brandon, Manitoba
R7A 5Z9
Tel (204) 726-6600
Fax (204) 726-6753

37. College universitaire de Saint-Boniface & Ecole technique et professionnelle
200 avenue de la Cathedrale
Saint-Boniface, Manitoba
R2H 0H7
Tel (204) 233-0210
Fax (204) 237-3240

38. Cumberland Regional College
201-1st Ave. W.
P.O. Box 2225
Nipawin, Saskatchewan
S0E 1E0
Tel (306) 862-9833
Fax (306) 862-4940

39. Cypress Hills Regional College
129 - 2nd Avenue N.E.
Swift Current, Saskatchewan
S9H 2C6
Tel (306) 773-1531
Fax (306) 773-2384

40. Keewatin Community Colleg
436-7th St
P.O. Box 3000
The Pas, Manitoba
R9A 1M7
Tel (204) 627-8542
Fax (204) 623-7316

41. North West Regional College
1381-101st St.
North Battleford, Saskatchewan
S9A 0Z9
Tel (306) 445-6288
Fax (306) 445-1575

42. Northlands College

Box 509
La Ronge, Saskatchewan
S0J 1L0
Tel (306) 425-4480
Fax (306) 425-3002

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43. Parkland Regional College
290 Prince William Drive
Box 790
Melville, Saskatchewan
S0A 2P0
Tel (306) 728-4471
Fax (306) 728-2576

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44. Prairie West Regional College
113 - 3rd Avenue West
P.O. Box 700
Biggar, Saskatchewan
S0K 0M0
Tel (306) 948-3363
Fax (306) 948-2094

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45. Red River Community College
2055 Notre Dame Avenue
Winnipeg, Manitoba
R3H 0J9
Tel (204) 632-2311
Fax (204) 632-9661

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46. Saskatchewan Institute of Applied Science and Technology (SIAST)
Secretariat
1401 - 606 Spadina Crescent East
Saskatoon, Saskatchewan
S7K 2H6
Tel (306) 933-7328
Fax (306) 933-7334

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47. South Winnipeg Technical Centre
130 Henlow Bay
P.O. Box 145
Fort Whyte, Manitoba
R3Y 1G5
Tel (204) 989-6500
Fax (204) 488-4152

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48. Southeast Regional College
Souris Valley Campus
Box 2003
Weyburn, Saskatchewan
S4H 2L1
Tel (306) 848-2511

Fax (306) 848-2517

49. Yellowquill College
P.O. Box 1599
Portage la Prairie, Manitoba
R1N 3P1
Tel (204) 239-1570
Fax (204) 857-4272

50. Algonquin College of Applied Arts and Technology
1385 Woodroffe Avenue
Nepean, Ontario
K2G 1V8
Tel (613) 727-4723
Fax (613) 727-7684

51. Cambrian College of Applied Arts and Technology
1400 Barrydowne Road
Station A
Sudbury, Ontario
P3A 3V8
Tel (705) 566-8101
Fax (705) 524-7329

52. Canadore College of Applied Arts and Technology
1300 Gormanville Rd.
P.O. Box 5001
North Bay, Ontario
P1B 8K9ENDFIELD
Tel (705) 474-7601
Fax (705) 474-2384

53. Centennial College of Applied Arts and Technology
41 Progress Cour
P.O. Box 631 Station A
Scarborough, Ontario
M1K 5E9
Tel (416) 694-324
Fax (416) 431-2597

54. College des Grands Lacs
76 rue Division
Welland, Ontario
L3B 3Z7
Tel 1-800-590-5227
Tel (905) 735-2470

55. Collège Boréal d'arts appliqués et de technologie
21 boulevard Lasalle
Sudbury, Ontario

P3A 6B1
Tel 1-800-361-6673
Tel (705) 675-6673
Fax (705) 524-2162

56. Conestoga College of Applied Arts and Technology
299 Doon Valley Drive
Kitchener, Ontario
N2G 4M4
Tel (519) 748-5220
Fax (519) 748-3505

57. Confederation College of Applied Arts and Technology
1450 Nakina Drive
P.O. Box 398
Thunder Bay, Ontario
P7C 4W1
Tel (807)
Fax (807) 623-6230

58. Durham College of Applied Arts and Technology
2000 Simcoe Street North
P.O. Box 385
Oshawa, Ontario
L1H 7L7
Tel (905) 721-2000
Fax (905) 721-3182

59. Fanshawe College of Applied Arts and Technology
1460 Oxford St
P.O. Box 4005
London, Ontario
N5W 5H1
Tel (519) 452-4100
Fax (519) 452-3570

60. Georgian College of Applied Arts and Technology
One Georgian Drive
Barrie, Ontario
L4M 3X9
Tel (705) 728-1951
Fax (705) 722-5123

61. Humber College of Applied Arts and Technology
North Campus
205 Humber College Blvd.
Box 1900
Etobicoke, Ontario
M9W 5L7
Tel (416) 675-3111
Fax (416) 675-1483

62. La Cité Collégiale
801, promenade de l'Aviation
Ottawa, Ontario
K1G 4R3
Tel (613) 742-2493
Fax (613) 742-2486

63. Lambton College of Applied Arts and Technology
1457 London Rd.
P.O. Box 969
Sarnia, Ontario
N7T 7K4
Tel (519) 542-7751
Fax (519) 542-6667

64. Loyalist College
P.O. Box 4200
Belleville, Ontario
K8N 5B9
Tel (613) 969-1913
Fax (613) 967-5804

65. Mohawk College of Applied Arts and Technology
Fennell Avenue and West 5th
P.O. Box 2034
Hamilton, Ontario
L8N 3T2
Tel (905) 575-1212
Fax (905) 575-2330

66. Niagara College of Applied Arts and Technology
Woodlawn Road
P.O. Box 1005
Welland, Ontario
L3B 5S2
Tel (905) 735-2211
Fax (905) 788-9451

67. Northern College of Applied Arts and Technology
Highway 101 East
P.O. Box 2002
South Porcupine, Ontario
P0N 1H0
Tel (705) 235-3211
Fax (705) 235-7279

68. Sault College of Applied Arts and Technology
443 Northern Avenue
P.O. Box 60
Sault Ste. Marie, Ontario
P6A 5L3

Tel (705) 759-6774
Fax (705) 759-1319

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69. Seneca College of Applied Arts and Technology
1750 Finch Avenue East
Willowdale, Ontario
M2J 2X5
Tel (416) 491-5050
Fax (416) 491-308

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70. Sheridan College of Applied Arts and Technology
Oakville Campus
Trafalgar Road
Oakvill, Ontario
L6H 2L1
Tel (905) 845-9430
Fax (905) 815-4043

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71. Sir Sandford Fleming College of Applied Arts and Technology
McDonnel Campus
526 McDonnel St.
Peterborough, Ontario
K9J 7B1
Tel (705) 743-5610
Fax (705) 749-5540

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72. St. Clair College of Applied Arts and Technology
2000 Talbot Road West
Windsor, Ontario
N9A 6S4
Tel (519) 966-1656
Fax (519) 966-2737

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73. St. Lawrence College Saint-Laurent
2288 Parkedale Avenue
Brockville, Ontario
K6V 5X3
Tel (613) 345-0660
Fax (613) 345-4721

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74. The George Brown College of Applied Arts & Technology
500 MacPherson Ave
P.O. Box 1015 Station B
Toronto, Ontario
M5T 2T9
Tel (416) 867-2000
Fax (416) 944-4641

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75. The Michener Institute for Applied Health Sciences
222 St. Patrick Street
Toronto, Ontario
M5T 1V4

Tel (416) 596-3101
Fax (416) 596-3156

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76. College d'Alma
675, boul. Auger oues
Alma, Québec
G8B 2B7
Tel (418) 668-2387
Fax (418) 668-3806

77. Cégep Andre Laurendeau
1111, rue Lapierre
Lasalle, Québec
H8N 2J4
Tel (514) 364-3320
Fax (514) 364-7130

78. College Bois-de-Boulogne
10555, avenue Bois-de-Boulogne
Montréal, Québec
H4N 1L4
Tel (514) 332-3000
Fax (514) 332-0083

79. Champlain Regional College
1301 Portland Boulevard
P.O. Box 5000
Sherbrooke, Québec
J1H 5N1
Tel (819) 564-3637
Fax (819) 564-3639

80. Cégep de Chicoutimi
534, rue Jacques-Cartier est
Chicoutimi, Québec
G7H 1Z6
Tel (418) 549-9520
Fax (418) 549-1107

81. College Edouard-Montpetit
945, chemin de Chambly
Longueuil, Québec
J4H 3M6
Tel (514) 679-2630
Fax (514) 679-5570

82. College Francois-Xavier-Garneau
1660, boulevard de l'Entente
Québec, Québec
G1S 4S3

Tel (418) 688-8310
Fax (418) 688-0087

83. Cégep de la Gaspesie et des Iles
96, rue Jacques-Cartier
Case postale 590
Gaspé, Québec
G0C 1R0
Tel (418) 368-2201
Fax (418) 368-7003

84. Cégep Heritage College
325 boul. Cite des Jeunes
Hull, Québec
J8Y 6T3
Tel (819) 778-2270
Fax (819) 778-7364

85. Institut de technologie agro-alimentaire de St-Hyacinthe
3230, rue Sicotte
Case postale 70
St-Hyacinthe, Québec
J2S 2M2
Tel (514) 778-6504
Fax (514) 778-6536

86. John Abbott College
21275 Lakeshore Rd.
Box 2000
Ste-Anne-de-Bellevue, Québec
H9X 3L
Tel (514) 457-6610
(514) 457-4730

87. Cégep Joliette - de Lanaudière
20, St-Charles sud
Joliette, Québec
J6E 4T1
Tel (514) 759-1661
Fax (514) 759-4468

88. College de Jonquière
2505, rue Saint-Hubert
Jonquière, Québec
G7X 7W2
Tel (418) 547-2191
Fax (418) 547-9031

89. College LaSalle
2000, rue Ste-Catherine ouest
Montréal, Québec
H3H 2T2

Tel (514) 939-2006
Fax (514) 939-2015

90. College de Limoilou
1300 - 8e avenue
Case postale 1400
Québec, Québec
G1K 7H3
Tel (418) 647-6600
Fax (418) 647-6798

91. College Lionel-Groulx
100, rue Duque
Saint-Therese, Québec
J7E 3G6
Tel (514) 430-3120
Fax (514) 971-7883

92. College de Maisonneuve
3800, rue Sherbrooke est
Montréal, Québec
H1X 2A2
Tel (514) 254-7131
Fax (514) 253-7637

93. Marianopolis College
3880 Cité-des-Neiges
Montréal, Québec
H3H 1W1
Tel (514) 931-8792
Fax (514) 931-8790

94. College de l'Outaouais
333, boulevard Cite des jeunes
Case postale 5220 Succursale A
Hull, Québec
J8Y 6M5
Tel (819) 770-4012
Fax (819) 770-8167

95. Collège de Rivière-du-Loup
80, Frontenac
Rivière-du-Loup, Québec
G5R 1R1
Tel (418) 862-6903
Fax (418) 862-4959

96. Collège de Rosemont
6400-16e Avenue
Montréal, Québec
H1X 2S9
Tel (514) 376-1620

Fax (514) 376-1440

97. Cégep de Saint-Jérôme
455, rue Fournier
Saint-Jérôme, Québec
7Z 4V2
Tel (514) 436-1580
Fax (514) 436-1756

98. Cégep de Saint-Hyacinthe
3000, rue Boullé
St-Hyacinthe, Québec
J2S 1H9
Tel (514) 773-6800
Fax (514) 773-0929

99. Cégep Saint-Jean-sur-Richelieu
30, boul. du Séminaire
C.P. 1018
Saint-Jean-sur-Richelieu, Québec
J3B 7B1
Tel (514) 347-5301
Fax (514) 347-3329

100. Cégep de Saint-Laurent
625, boulevard Sainte-Croix
St-Laurent, Québec
H4L 3X7
Tel (514) 747-6521
Fax (514) 748-1250

101. Collège de Sherbrooke
475, rue Parc
Sherbrooke, Québec
J1H 5M7
Tel (819) 564-6350
Fax (819) 564-1579

102. Cégep de Trois-Rivières
3500, rue de Courval
Case postale 97
Trois-Rivières, Québec
G9A 5E6
Tel (819) 376-1721
Fax (819) 693-4663

103. Vanier College
821 Ste-Croix Boulevard
Montréal, Québec
H4L 3X9
Tel (514) 744-7500
Fax (514) 744-7520

104. Cabot College of Applied Arts Technology and Continuing Education
Prince Philip Drive
P.O. Box 1693
St. John's (Terre-Neuve)
A1C 5P7
Tel (709) 758-7200
Fax (709) 758-7304

105. Central Newfoundland Regional College
P.O. Box 745
Grand Falls - Windsor
Newfoundland
A2A 2M4
Tel (709) 489-5351
Fax (709) 489-4358

106. Collège de l'Acadie
C.P. 8
La Butte, Nova Scoti
B0W 2L0
Tel (902) 769-0851
Fax (902) 769-0165

107. Eastern College of Applied Arts, Technology, and Continuing Education
Regional Administration Office
P.O. Box 3600
Clarenville (Terre-Neuve)
A0E 1J0
Tel (709) 466-1991
Fax (709) 466-2777

108. Ecole des pèches du Nouveau-Brunswick
Case postale 178
Caraquet, New Brunswick
E0B 1K0
Tel (506) 727-6531
Fax (506) 727-7153

109. Holland College
140 Weymouth Stree
Charlottetown, Prince Edward Island
C1A 4Z1
Tel (902) 566-9510
Fax (902) 566-9505

110. Labrador Community College
P.O. Box 3013
Happy Valley
Goose Bay, Labrador
A0P 1E0

Tel (709) 896-3307
Fax (709) 896-9533

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111. New Brunswick Community College (NBCC)
Dieppe, New Brunswick *(in French)*
E1A 6X2
Tel: (506) 856-2200

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112. New Brunswick Community College (NBCC)
Edmunston
C.P. 70
225, rue du Village
Edmunston, New Brunswick
E3V 3K7
Tel: (506) 735-2500
Fax: (506) 735-1108

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113. New Brunswick Community College (NBCC)
Bathurst
C.P. 266
225, rue du Collège
Bathurst, New Brunswick
E2A 3Z2
Tel: (506) 547-2145
Fax: (506) 547-2741

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114. New Brunswick Community College (NBCC)
Miramichi
P.O. Box 1053
80 University Avenue
Chatham, New Brunswick
Tel: (506) 778-6000
Fax: (506) 778-6001

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115. New Brunswick Community College (NBCC)
Woodstock
P.O. Box 1175
100 Broadway Street
Woodstock, New Brunswick
E0J 2B0
Tel: (506) 325-4400
Fax: (506) 328-8426

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116. New Brunswick Community College (NBCC)
Moncton
1234 Mountain Road
Moncton, New Brunswick
E1C 8H9
Tel: (506) 856-2220
Fax: (506) 856-2665

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117. New Brunswick Community College (NBCC)

Saint John
P.O. Box 2270
Grandview Avenue
Saint John, New Brunswick
E2L 3V1
Tel: (506) 658-6601
Fax: (506) 658-6792

118. New Brunswick Community College (NBCC)
St. Andrews
P.O. Box 427
Augustus Street
St. Andrews, New Brunswick
E0G 2X0
Tel: (506) 529-5000
Fax: (506) 529-5078

119. Nova Scotia Community College
2021 Brunswick Street
P.O. Box 578
Halifax, Nova Scotia
B3J 2S9
Tel (902) 424-4166
Fax (902) 424-0717

120. Nova Scotia Agricultural College
P.O. Box 550
Truro, Nova Scotia
B2N 5E3
Tel (902) 893-6600
Fax (902) 897-9399

121. Saint John School of Nursing
P.O. Box 187
Saint John, New Brunswick
E2L 3X8
Tel (506) 648-6640
Fax (506) 648-6639

122. Westviking College of Applied Arts, Technology and Continuing Education
P.O. Box 540
Stephenville, Newfoundland
Tel (709) 643-7701
Fax (709) 643-5407

APPENDIX 10

CODING INSTRUCTIONS

INTERNATIONAL EDUCATION INVOLVEMENT OF CANADIAN PUBLIC COLLEGES AND POST-SECONDARY TECHNICAL INSTITUTIONS

VAR #	COLUMN #	CARD	DESCRIPTION
V 1	1-3	1	Survey number
V 2	4		Card number
			SECTION I-RELEVANCY TO YOUR INSTITUTION
V 3	5		Participates in overseas projects: 1= yes. 2= no
V 4	6		Teacher/trains invernational students on campus: 1= yes. 2= no
			SECTION II-ABOUT RESPONDENT
V 5	7-8		Years of international experience before joining institution
V 6	9-10		Years participated in international activities with your institution
			EDUCATION
V 7	11		Journeyman/trade certification: 1= yes. 2= no
V 8	12		Technical/technology diploma: 1= yes. 2= no
V 9	13		Undergraduate degree: 1= yes. 2= no
V 10	14		Graduate degree: 1= yes. 2= no
			PRIMARY AREA OF ACADEMIC TRAINING
V 11	15		Agriculture/fisheries: 1= yes. 2= no
V 12	16		Business: 1= yes. 2= no
V 13	17		Economics: 1= yes. 2= no
V 14	18		Education: 1= yes. 2= no
V 15	19		Engineering: 1= yes. 2= no
V 16	20		Health sciences: 1= yes. 2= no
V 17	21		International education/development: 1= yes. 2= no
V 18	22		Marketing: 1= yes. 2= no
V 19	23		Natural resources/earth sciences: 1= yes. 2= no
V 20	24		Political sciences: 1= yes. 2= no
V 21	25		Sciences: 1= yes. 2= no
V 22	26		Trades/apprenticeships: 1= yes. 2= no
V 23	27		Other: 1= yes. 2= no
			LANGUAGES SPOKEN
V 24	28-29		Language #1: 1= english. 2=
V 25	30		Level #1: 1= basic. 2= intermediate. 3= advanced
V 26	31-32		Language #2:
V 27	33		Level #2: 1= basic. 2= intermediate. 3= advanced
V 28	34-35		Language #3:
V 29	36		Level #3: 1= basic. 2= intermediate. 3= advanced
			SECTION III-ABOUT INSTITUTION
V 30	37-38		Year institution founded

V 31	39-40	Institution located in province/territory: 1= British Columbia, 2= Alberta, 3= Saskatchewan, 4= Manitoba, 5= Ontario, 6= Quebec, 7= Newfoundland, 8= Nova Scotia, 9= New Brunswick, 10= Prince Edward Island, 11= Northwest Territories
V 32	41	Population of city/town where institution located: 1= 0-50,000, 2= 50,001-100,000
V 33	42-45	Total number students (international and others)
V 34	46-49	Total number full-time staff members (administrative, instructional and support)
		SECTION IV-ABOUT INTERNATIONAL EDUCATION DEPARTMENT/UNIT
V 35	50	Institution has department/unit specializing in international education: 1= yes, 2= no
V 36	51-52	Year department/unit established
V 37	53	Department/unit currently have adequate staff to effectively handle international education activities: 1= yes, 2= no
V 38	54-56	Number of full-time staff (administrative, instructional and support)
V 39	57	Personnel on loan to department/unit selected by: 1= open competition, 2= appointment by administration, 3= both
V 40	58	Hire consultants for overseas posting rather than using personnel from the institution: 1= yes, 2= no
		IMPORTANCE OF FOLLOWING SKILLS FOR STAFF TEACHING INTERNATIONAL STUDENTS
V 41	59	Foreign language proficiency: 1= very, 2= moderately, 3= not
V 42	60	Cross-cultural ability: 1= very, 2= moderately, 3= not
V 43	61	Practical/applied ability: 1= very, 2= moderately, 3= not
V 44	62	Academic ability: 1= very, 2= moderately, 3= not
V 45	63	Previous international experience: 1= very, 2= moderately, 3= not
		IMPORTANCE OF FOLLOWING SKILLS FOR STAFF ASSIGNED TO OVERSEAS DUTIES
V 46	64	Foreign language proficiency: 1= very, 2= moderately, 3= not
V 47	65	Cross-cultural ability: 1= very, 2= moderately, 3= not
V 48	66	Practical/applied ability: 1= very, 2= moderately, 3= not
V 49	67	Academic ability: 1= very, 2= moderately, 3= not
V 50	68	Previous international experience: 1= very, 2= moderately, 3= not
V 51	69	Department/unit operate primarily on cost-recovery basis: 1= yes, 2= no

V 52	70-71		If department/unit fully or partially funded by institution, what is % of total institutional budget assigned to it
V 53	72-73		% of total institutional revenue generated by department/unit
V 54	74		Department/unit function under advisory board committee overseeing international activities: 1= yes, 2= no
			IF YES TO ABOVE QUESTION, WHICH GROUPS DO MEMBERS OF THAT BOARD/COMMITTEE BELONG
V 55	75		Institution academic staff: 1= yes, 2= no
V 56	76		Institution administration: 1= yes, 2= no
V 57	77		Canadian business and industry: 1= yes, 2= no
V 58	78		International agencies representatives: 1= yes, 2= no
V 59	79		Others: 1= yes, 2= no
	1-3	2	Survey number
	4		Card number
			SECTION V-ABOUT INTERNATIONAL EDUCATION
			INSTITUTION CONSIDERS INTERNATIONAL EDUCATION AN ACTIVITY WHICH IS
V 60	5		Primary: 1= yes, 2= no
V 61	6		Secondary: 1= yes, 2= no
V 62	7		Complementary: 1= yes, 2= no
V 63	8		Unimportant: 1= yes, 2= no
			MAJOR REASONS FOR INSTITUTION ORIGINALLY BECOMING INVOLVED IN INTERNATIONAL EDUCATION ACTIVITIES
V 64	9		Informal foreign request: 1= yes, 2= no
V 65	10		Formal foreign request: 1= yes, 2= no
V 66	11		Federal policy or initiative: 1= yes, 2= no
V 67	12		Provincial policy or initiative: 1= yes, 2= no
V 68	13		Government agency request: 1= yes, 2= no
V 69	14		Non-government request: 1= yes, 2= no
V 70	15		Local initiative: 1= yes, 2= no
V 71	16		Institution initiative: 1= yes, 2= no
V 72	17		Personal initiative: 1= yes, 2= no
V 73	18		Others: 1= yes, 2= no
			PERIOD DURING WHICH INSTITUTION BECAME INVOLVED IN INTERNATIONAL EDUCATION ACTIVITIES
V 74	19		Start of international education activities: 1= 1960-1970, 2= 1971-1985, 3= 1986-present
			PREDOMINANT NATURE OF INTERNATIONAL ACTIVITIES DURING LISTED PERIODS
V 75	20		Teaching of international students on campus: 1= 1960-1970, 2= 1971-1985, 3= 1986-present
V 76	21		Overseas work: 1= 1960-1970, 2= 1971-1985, 3= 1986-present

		IMPORTANCE GIVEN BY INSTITUTION TO FOLLOWING FUNCTIONS OF INTERNATIONAL EDUCATION
V 77	22	Facilitate economic globalization: 1= very, 2= moderate, 3= not
V 78	23	Form human capital in recipient nation: 1= very, 2= moderate, 3= not
V 79	24	Modernize recipient nation: 1= very, 2= moderate, 3= not
V 80	25	Promote social equality in recipient nation: 1= very, 2= moderate, 3= not
V 81	26	Promote economic growth of recipient nation: 1= very, 2= moderate, 3= not
V 82	27	Redistribute income in recipient nation: 1= very, 2= moderate, 3= not
V 83	28	Others: 1= very, 2= moderate, 3= not
		INSTITUTIONS MAJOR GEOGRAPHICAL AREAS OF INTERNATIONAL EDUCATION INVOLVEMENT OVER TIME
		CARIBBEAN
V 84	29	1960-1970: 1= yes, 2= no
V 85	30	1971-1985: 1= yes, 2= no
V 86	31	1986-present: 1= yes, 2= no
		CHINA
V 87	32	1960-1970: 1= yes, 2= no
V 88	33	1971-1985: 1= yes, 2= no
V 89	34	1986-present: 1= yes, 2= no
		EASTERN EUROPE
V 90	35	1960-1970: 1= yes, 2= no
V 91	36	1971-1985: 1= yes, 2= no
V 92	37	1986-present: 1= yes, 2= no
		AFRICA
V 93	38	1960-1970: 1= yes, 2= no
V 94	39	1971-1985: 1= yes, 2= no
V 95	40	1986-present: 1= yes, 2= no
		INDIA
V 96	41	1960-1970: 1= yes, 2= no
V 97	42	1971-1985: 1= yes, 2= no
V 98	43	1986-present: 1= yes, 2= no
		CENTRAL AMERICA
V 99	44	1960-1970: 1= yes, 2= no
V100	45	1971-1985: 1= yes, 2= no
V101	46	1986-present: 1= yes, 2= no
		SOUTH AMERICA
V102	47	1960-1970: 1= yes, 2= no
V103	48	1971-1985: 1= yes, 2= no
V104	49	1986-present: 1= yes, 2= no
		OCEANIA
V105	50	1960-1970: 1= yes, 2= no
V106	51	1971-1985: 1= yes, 2= no
V107	52	1986-present: 1= yes, 2= no
		SOUTH EAST ASIA
V108	53	1960-1970: 1= yes, 2= no
V109	54	1971-1985: 1= yes, 2= no
V110	55	1986-present: 1= yes, 2= no

			OTHERS
V111	56		1960-1970: 1= yes, 2= no
V112	57		1971-1985: 1= yes, 2= no
V113	58		1986-present: 1= yes, 2= no
			INSTITUTION'S MAJOR FIELD OF FOCUS IN INTERNATIONAL EDUCATION DURING LISTED PERIODS
			AGRICULTURE
V114	59		1960-1970: 1= yes, 2= no
V115	60		1971-1985: 1= yes, 2= no
V116	61		1986-present: 1= yes, 2= no
			APPLIED ARTS
V117	62		1960-1970: 1= yes, 2= no
V118	63		1971-1985: 1= yes, 2= no
V119	64		1986-present: 1= yes, 2= no
			ARCHITECTURE/CIVIL ENG TECH
V120	65		1960-1970: 1= yes, 2= no
V121	66		1971-1985: 1= yes, 2= no
V122	67		1986-present: 1= yes, 2= no
			BASIC SCIENCES
V123	68		1960-1970: 1= yes, 2= no
V124	69		1971-1985: 1= yes, 2= no
V125	70		1986-present: 1= yes, 2= no
			BUSINESS
V126	71		1960-1970: 1= yes, 2= no
V127	72		1971-1985: 1= yes, 2= no
V128	73		1986-present: 1= yes, 2= no
			COMPUTING/INFORMATION
V129	74		1960-1970: 1= yes, 2= no
V130	75		1971-1985: 1= yes, 2= no
V131	76		1986-present: 1= yes, 2= no
			ELECTRICAL/ELECTRONICS/TELECOM TECH
V132	77		1960-1970: 1= yes, 2= no
V133	78		1971-1985: 1= yes, 2= no
V134	79		1986-present: 1= yes, 2= no
	1-3	3	Survey number
	4		Card number
			INSTITUTION'S MAJOR FIELD OF FOCUS IN INTERNATIONAL EDUCATION DURING LISTED PERIODS CONT'D
			ENVIRONMENTAL SCIENCES
V135	5		1960-1970: 1= yes, 2= no
V136	6		1971-1985: 1= yes, 2= no
V137	7		1986-present: 1= yes, 2= no
			FISHERIES
V138	8		1960-1970: 1= yes, 2= no
V139	9		1971-1985: 1= yes, 2= no
V140	10		1986-present: 1= yes, 2= no
			HEALTH SCIENCES
V141	11		1960-1970: 1= yes, 2= no
V142	12		1971-1985: 1= yes, 2= no
V143	13		1986-present: 1= yes, 2= no

		HOSPITALITY/TOURISM
V144	14	1960-1970: 1= yes. 2= no
V145	15	1971-1985: 1= yes. 2= no
V146	16	1986-present: 1= yes. 2= no
		MECHANICAL ENGINEERING TECH
V147	17	1960-1970: 1= yes. 2= no
V148	18	1971-1985: 1= yes. 2= no
V149	19	1986-present: 1= yes. 2= no
		NATURAL RESOURCES
V150	20	1960-1970: 1= yes. 2= no
V151	21	1971-1985: 1= yes. 2= no
V152	22	1986-present: 1= yes. 2= no
		TEXTILE
V153	23	1960-1970: 1= yes. 2= no
V154	24	1971-1985: 1= yes. 2= no
V155	25	1986-present: 1= yes. 2= no
		TRADES/APPRENTICESHIP
V156	26	1960-1970: 1= yes. 2= no
V157	27	1971-1985: 1= yes. 2= no
V158	28	1986-present: 1= yes. 2= no
		OTHERS
V159	29	1960-1970: 1= yes. 2= no
V160	30	1971-1985: 1= yes. 2= no
V161	31	1986-present: 1= yes. 2= no
V162	32	Do fields of focus in above question correspond primarily to major institutional strengths: 1= yes. 2= no
		TYPE OF PROGRAMS MOST COMMONLY OFFERED TO INTERNATIONAL STUDENTS DURING LISTED PERIODS
		ENROLLMENT IN REGULAR PROGRAMS
V163	33	1960-1970: 1= yes. 2= no
V164	34	1971-1985: 1= yes. 2= no
V165	35	1986-present: 1= yes. 2= no
		ENROLLMENT IN CUSTOM PROGRAMS
V166	36	1960-1970: 1= yes. 2= no
V167	37	1971-1985: 1= yes. 2= no
V168	38	1986-present: 1= yes. 2= no
		TEACHING PRACTICUM/TRAINING TRAINERS
V169	39	1960-1970: 1= yes. 2= no
V170	40	1971-1985: 1= yes. 2= no
V171	41	1986-present: 1= yes. 2= no
		OTHERS
V172	42	1960-1970: 1= yes. 2= no
V173	43	1971-1985: 1= yes. 2= no
V174	44	1986-present: 1= yes. 2= no
		LENGTH OF PROGRAMS COMMONLY OFFERED TO INTERNATIONAL STUDENTS DURING LISTED PERIODS
		LESS THAN 3 MONTHS
V175	45	1960-1970: 1= yes. 2= no
V176	46	1971-1985: 1= yes. 2= no
V177	47	1986-present: 1= yes. 2= no

		3 TO 6 MONTHS
V178	48	1960-1970: 1= yes, 2= no
V179	49	1971-1985: 1= yes, 2= no
V180	50	1986-present: 1= yes, 2= no
		7 TO 12 MONTHS
V181	51	1960-1970: 1= yes, 2= no
V182	52	1971-1985: 1= yes, 2= no
V183	53	1986-present: 1= yes, 2= no
		13 TO 18 MONTHS
V184	54	1960-1970: 1= yes, 2= no
V185	55	1971-1985: 1= yes, 2= no
V186	56	1986-present: 1= yes, 2= no
		19 TO 24 MONTHS
V187	57	1960-1970: 1= yes, 2= no
V188	58	1971-1985: 1= yes, 2= no
V189	59	1986-present: 1= yes, 2= no
		MORE THAN 24 MONTHS
V190	60	1960-1970: 1= yes, 2= no
V191	61	1971-1985: 1= yes, 2= no
V192	62	1986-present: 1= yes, 2= no
		FUNCTIONS OF PROGRAMS COMMONLY OFFERED TO INTERNATIONAL STUDENTS DURING LISTED PERIODS
		INITIAL TRAINING
V193	63	1960-1970: 1= yes, 2= no
V194	64	1971-1985: 1= yes, 2= no
V195	65	1986-present: 1= yes, 2= no
		SPECIALIZATION
V196	66	1960-1970: 1= yes, 2= no
V197	67	1971-1985: 1= yes, 2= no
V198	68	1986-present: 1= yes, 2= no
		UPGRADING
V199	69	1960-1970: 1= yes, 2= no
V200	70	1971-1985: 1= yes, 2= no
V201	71	1986-present: 1= yes, 2= no
		CAREER CHANGE
V202	72	1960-1970: 1= yes, 2= no
V203	73	1971-1985: 1= yes, 2= no
V204	74	1986-present: 1= yes, 2= no
		REMEDIAL
V205	75	1960-1970: 1= yes, 2= no
V206	76	1971-1985: 1= yes, 2= no
V207	77	1986-present: 1= yes, 2= no
		OTHER
V208	78	1960-1970: 1= yes, 2= no
V209	79	1971-1985: 1= yes, 2= no
V210	80	1986-present: 1= yes, 2= no

	1-3	4	Survey number
	4		Card number
			MAJOR TYPES OF INTERNATIONAL PROJECTS UNDERTAKEN DURING LISTED PERIODS
			CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT
V211	5		1960-1970: 1= yes, 2= no
V212	6		1971-1985: 1= yes, 2= no
V213	7		1986-present: 1= yes, 2= no
			HUMAN RESOURCES DEVELOPMENT
V214	8		1960-1970: 1= yes, 2= no
V215	9		1971-1985: 1= yes, 2= no
V216	10		1986-present: 1= yes, 2= no
			NEEDS ANALYSIS
V217	11		1960-1970: 1= yes, 2= no
V218	12		1971-1985: 1= yes, 2= no
V219	13		1986-present: 1= yes, 2= no
			PROGRAM PLANNING
V220	14		1960-1970: 1= yes, 2= no
V221	15		1971-1985: 1= yes, 2= no
V222	16		1986-present: 1= yes, 2= no
			PROGRAM EVALUATION
V223	17		1960-1970: 1= yes, 2= no
V224	18		1971-1985: 1= yes, 2= no
V225	19		1986-present: 1= yes, 2= no
			TEACHING STUDENTS ABROAD
V226	20		1960-1970: 1= yes, 2= no
V227	21		1971-1985: 1= yes, 2= no
V228	22		1986-present: 1= yes, 2= no
			TECHNICAL ASSISTANCE
V229	23		1960-1970: 1= yes, 2= no
V230	24		1971-1985: 1= yes, 2= no
V231	25		1986-present: 1= yes, 2= no
			TRAINING TRAINERS
V232	26		1960-1970: 1= yes, 2= no
V233	27		1971-1985: 1= yes, 2= no
V234	28		1986-present: 1= yes, 2= no
			OTHERS
V235	29		1960-1970: 1= yes, 2= no
V236	30		1971-1985: 1= yes, 2= no
V237	31		1986-present: 1= yes, 2= no
			TYPICAL LENGTH OF PROJECTS UNDERTAKEN BY INSTITUTION DURING LISTED PERIODS
			LESS THAN 3 MONTHS
V238	32		1960-1970: 1= yes, 2= no
V239	33		1971-1985: 1= yes, 2= no
V240	34		1986-present: 1= yes, 2= no
			3 TO 6 MONTHS
V241	35		1960-1970: 1= yes, 2= no
V242	36		1971-1985: 1= yes, 2= no
V243	37		1986-present: 1= yes, 2= no
			7 TO 12 MONTHS
V244	38		1960-1970: 1= yes, 2= no
V245	39		1971-1985: 1= yes, 2= no
V246	40		1986-present: 1= yes, 2= no

		13 TO 18 MONTHS
V247	41	1960-1970: 1= yes, 2= no
V248	42	1971-1985: 1= yes, 2= no
V249	43	1986-present: 1= yes, 2= no
		19 TO 24 MONTHS
V250	44	1960-1970: 1= yes, 2= no
V251	45	1971-1985: 1= yes, 2= no
V252	46	1986-present: 1= yes, 2= no
		MORE THAN 24 MONTHS
V253	47	1960-1970: 1= yes, 2= no
V254	48	1971-1985: 1= yes, 2= no
V255	49	1986-present: 1= yes, 2= no
		TOTAL NUMBER OF INTERNATIONAL EDUCATION PROJECTS UNDERTAKEN BY INSTITUTION DURING LISTED PERIODS
V256	50-52	1960-1970
V257	53-55	1971-1985
V258	56-58	1986-present
		WHEN DOES FOLLOW-UP OF COMPLETED PROJECTS TAKE PLACE
V259	59	Immediately: 1= yes, 2= no
V260	60	1 to 3 years: 1= yes, 2= no
V261	61	More than 3 years: 1= yes, 2= no
V262	62	Follow-up take place: 1= yes, 2= no
V263	63	Others: 1= yes, 2= no
		SUCCESS RATE OF INSTITUTION'S INTERNATIONAL ACTIVITIES
V264	64	Very good: 1= programs, 2= projects, 3= both
V265	65	Good: 1= programs, 2= projects, 3= both
V266	66	Moderate: 1= programs, 2= projects, 3= both
V267	67	Poor: 1= programs, 2= projects, 3= both
V268	68	Very poor: 1= programs, 2= projects, 3= both
		WHO EXPLICITLY EVALUATED INTERNATIONAL EDUCATION PERFORMANCE OF YOUR INSTITUTION
V269	69	International education department/unit: 1= yes, 2= no
V270	70	Administration: 1= yes, 2= no
V271	71	Provincial/territorial international agencies: 1= yes, 2= no
V272	72	Federal international agencies: 1= yes, 2= no
V273	73	Canadian business/industry: 1= yes, 2= no
V274	74	International students graduated from programs: 1= yes, 2= no
V275	75	International clients involved in projects: 1= yes, 2= no
V276	76	Foreign governments in countries clients are from: 1= yes, 2= no
V277	77	Industry collaborators in areas clients are from: 1= yes, 2= no
V278	78	Others: 1= yes, 2= no

	1-3	5	Survey number
	4		Card number
			ORIGIN OF INTERNATIONAL STUDENT POPULATION ATTENDING INSTITUTION DURING LISTED PERIODS
			CARIBBEAN
V279	5		1960-1970: 1= yes, 2= no
V280	6		1971-1985: 1= yes, 2= no
V281	7		1986-present: 1= yes, 2= no
			CHINA
V282	8		1960-1970: 1= yes, 2= no
V283	9		1971-1985: 1= yes, 2= no
V284	10		1986-present: 1= yes, 2= no
			EASTERN EUROPE
V285	11		1960-1970: 1= yes, 2= no
V286	12		1971-1985: 1= yes, 2= no
V287	13		1986-present: 1= yes, 2= no
			AFRICA
V288	14		1960-1970: 1= yes, 2= no
V289	15		1971-1985: 1= yes, 2= no
V290	16		1986-present: 1= yes, 2= no
			INDIA
V291	17		1960-1970: 1= yes, 2= no
V292	18		1971-1985: 1= yes, 2= no
V293	19		1986-present: 1= yes, 2= no
			CENTRAL AMERICA
V294	20		1960-1970: 1= yes, 2= no
V295	21		1971-1985: 1= yes, 2= no
V296	22		1986-present: 1= yes, 2= no
			SOUTH AMERICA
V297	23		1960-1970: 1= yes, 2= no
V298	24		1971-1985: 1= yes, 2= no
V299	25		1986-present: 1= yes, 2= no
			OCEANIA
V300	26		1960-1970: 1= yes, 2= no
V301	27		1971-1985: 1= yes, 2= no
V302	28		1986-present: 1= yes, 2= no
			SOUTH EAST ASIA
V303	29		1960-1970: 1= yes, 2= no
V304	30		1971-1985: 1= yes, 2= no
V305	31		1986-present: 1= yes, 2= no
			OTHERS
V306	32		1960-1970: 1= yes, 2= no
V307	33		1971-1985: 1= yes, 2= no
V308	34		1986-present: 1= yes, 2= no
			TO WHICH CATEGORY DOES THE MAJORITY OF INTERNATIONAL STUDENTS BELONG
V309	35		Within international projects: 1= yes, 2= no
V310	36		Individually sponsored by agencies or governments: 1= yes, 2= no
V311	37		Registering as individual clients, and paying their own fees: 1= yes, 2= no

		DURING PERIODS LISTED, WERE INTERNATIONAL STUDENTS PREDOMINANTLY FUNCTIONING AS INDIVIDUALS OR AS MEMBERS OF SPONSORED GROUPS
		INDIVIDUALS
V312	38	1960-1970: 1= yes, 2= no
V313	39	1971-1985: 1= yes, 2= no
V314	40	1986-present: 1= yes, 2= no
		MEMBERS OF GROUPS
V315	41	1960-1970: 1= yes, 2= no
V316	42	1971-1985: 1= yes, 2= no
V317	43	1986-present: 1= yes, 2= no
		NUMBER OF INTERNATIONAL STUDENTS ATTENDING INSTITUTION DURING LISTED PERIODS
V318	44-46	1960-1970
V319	47-49	1971-1985
V320	50-52	1986-present
V321	53	Does institution have English-as-second-language available to international students experiencing weakness in English: 1= yes, 2= no
		WHAT CREDENTIALS WERE OBTAINED BY INTERNATIONAL STUDENTS DURING PERIODS LISTED
		STANDARD DIPLOMA
V322	54	1960-1970: 1= yes, 2= no
V323	55	1971-1985: 1= yes, 2= no
V324	56	1986-present: 1= yes, 2= no
		STANDARD CERTIFICATE
V325	57	1960-1970: 1= yes, 2= no
V326	58	1971-1985: 1= yes, 2= no
V327	59	1986-present: 1= yes, 2= no
		INTERNATIONAL DIPLOMA
V328	60	1960-1970: 1= yes, 2= no
V329	61	1971-1985: 1= yes, 2= no
V330	62	1986-present: 1= yes, 2= no
		INTERNATIONAL CERTIFICATE
V331	63	1960-1970: 1= yes, 2= no
V332	64	1971-1985: 1= yes, 2= no
V333	65	1986-present: 1= yes, 2= no
		GRADE STATEMENTS
V334	66	1960-1970: 1= yes, 2= no
V335	67	1971-1985: 1= yes, 2= no
V336	68	1986-present: 1= yes, 2= no
		OTHERS
V337	69	1960-1970: 1= yes, 2= no
V338	70	1971-1985: 1= yes, 2= no
V339	71	1986-present: 1= yes, 2= no
V340	72	If international students receive international diplomas or certificates, are these credentials equivalent to those obtained by Canadian students taking the same programs: 1= yes, 2= no

			WHEN DOES FOLLOW-UP OF GRADUATED INTERNATIONAL STUDENTS TAKE PLACE
V341	73		Immediately: 1= yes, 2= no
V342	74		1 to 3 years: 1= yes, 2= no
V343	75		More than 3 years: 1= yes, 2= no
V344	76		Follow-up take place: 1= yes, 2= no
V345	77		Others: 1= yes, 2= no
	1-3	6	Survey number
	4		Card number
			PRIMARY INTENT(S) OF INTERNATIONAL EDUCATION DURING LISTED PERIODS
			EXPAND TRADE
V346	5		1960-1970: 1= yes, 2= no
V347	6		1971-1985: 1= yes, 2= no
V348	7		1986-present: 1= yes, 2= no
			PARTNERSHIP WITH CANADIAN BUSINESS/INDUSTRY
V349	8		1960-1970: 1= yes, 2= no
V350	9		1971-1985: 1= yes, 2= no
V351	10		1986-present: 1= yes, 2= no
			PARTNERSHIP WITH FOREIGN BUSINESS/INDUSTRY
V352	11		1960-1970: 1= yes, 2= no
V353	12		1971-1985: 1= yes, 2= no
V354	13		1986-present: 1= yes, 2= no
			GENERATE REVENUE
V355	14		1960-1970: 1= yes, 2= no
V356	15		1971-1985: 1= yes, 2= no
V357	16		1986-present: 1= yes, 2= no
			INTERNATIONALIZE INSTITUTION'S CURRICULUM
V358	17		1960-1970: 1= yes, 2= no
V359	18		1971-1985: 1= yes, 2= no
V360	19		1986-present: 1= yes, 2= no
			INTERNATIONALIZE EDUCATION IN FOREIGN COUNTRIES
V361	20		1960-1970: 1= yes, 2= no
V362	21		1971-1985: 1= yes, 2= no
V363	22		1986-present: 1= yes, 2= no
			MEET FEDERAL COMMITMENTS
V364	23		1960-1970: 1= yes, 2= no
V365	24		1971-1985: 1= yes, 2= no
V366	25		1986-present: 1= yes, 2= no
			MEET PROVINCIAL/TERRITORIAL COMMITMENTS
V367	26		1960-1970: 1= yes, 2= no
V368	27		1971-1985: 1= yes, 2= no
V369	28		1986-present: 1= yes, 2= no
			OFFSET STAFF REDUCTION AT INSTITUTION
V370	29		1960-1970: 1= yes, 2= no
V371	30		1971-1985: 1= yes, 2= no
V372	31		1986-present: 1= yes, 2= no
			PROVIDE HUMANITARIAN ASSISTANCE
V373	32		1960-1970: 1= yes, 2= no
V374	33		1971-1985: 1= yes, 2= no
V375	34		1986-present: 1= yes, 2= no

		PROVIDE STAFF DEVELOPMENT
V376	35	1960-1970: 1= yes, 2= no
V377	36	1971-1985: 1= yes, 2= no
V378	37	1986-present: 1= yes, 2= no
		OTHERS
V379	38	1960-1970: 1= yes, 2= no
V380	39	1971-1985: 1= yes, 2= no
V381	40	1986-present: 1= yes, 2= no
V382	41	Does institution participate in joint international education ventures with partner institutions in the south: 1= yes, 2= no
V383	42	If "yes" above, do partners in the south grant credentials endorsed jointly by your institution and themselves: 1= yes, 2= no
V384	43	If institution does not grant mutually endorsed credentials, does it plan to do so between now and 2010: 1= yes, 2= no
		SECTION VI-MISCELLANEOUS
		INSTITUTION'S MAJOR INTERNATIONAL EDUCATION MARKETING STRATEGY USED DURING THE LISTED PERIODS
		NONE
V385	44	1960-1970: 1= yes, 2= no
V386	45	1971-1985: 1= yes, 2= no
V387	46	1986-present: 1= yes, 2= no
		REACTIVE
V388	47	1960-1970: 1= yes, 2= no
V389	48	1971-1985: 1= yes, 2= no
V390	49	1986-present: 1= yes, 2= no
		PROACTIVE
V391	50	1960-1970: 1= yes, 2= no
V392	51	1971-1985: 1= yes, 2= no
V393	52	1986-present: 1= yes, 2= no
V394	53	Do you use local residents or foreign countries to market/promote international education services abroad: 1= yes, 2= no
V395	54	Does international education department/unit have a web-site on the internet: 1= yes, 2= no
V396	55	Does institution plan to reduce or terminate its international education activities in the foreseeable future: 1= yes, 2= no
V397	56	Does institution plan to review/update its policy stance to international education activities in the foreseeable future: 1= yes, 2= no
V398	57	Do you promote all your programs equally in the international marketplace: 1= yes, 2= no
		SECTION VII-RESPONDENT OPINIONS
V399	58	Give your opinion of Canadian college and post-secondary technical education: 1= very poor, 2= poor, 3= moderate, 4= good, 5= very good
V400	59	Forecast performance of Canadian college and post-secondary technical education between now and 2010: 1= very poor, 2= poor, 3= moderate, 4= good, 5= very good

			HOW WELL IS CANADIAN INTERNATIONAL COLLEGE AND POST-SECONDARY TECHNICAL EDUCATION ORGANIZED/COORDINATED AT THE FOLLOWING LEVELS
V401	60		Institutional: 1= very poor, 2= poor, 3= moderate, 4= good, 5= very good
V402	61		Local: 1= very poor, 2= poor, 3= moderate, 4= good, 5= very good
V403	62		Provincial/territorial: 1= very poor, 2= poor, 3= moderate, 4= good, 5= very gooc
V404	63		National: 1= very poor, 2= poor, 3= moderate, 4= good, 5= very good
V405	64		International: 1= very poor, 2= poor, 3= moderate, 4= good, 5= very good
V406	65		Do you perceive international education to promote sales of Canadian goods and services abroad: 1= yes, 2= no
V407	66		Do you believe that your institution's international projects have had a sustained positive economic impact on recipient countries: 1= yes, 2= no
			HOW WOULD YOU RATE YOUR INSTITUTION'S GENERAL PERFORMANCE IN INTERNATIONAL EDUCATION DURING THE LISTED PERIODS
			VERY POOR
V408	67		1960-1970: 1= yes, 2= no
V409	68		1971-1985: 1= yes, 2= no
V410	69		1986-present: 1= yes, 2= no
			POOR
V411	70		1960-1970: 1= yes, 2= no
V412	71		1971-1985: 1= yes, 2= no
V413	72		1986-present: 1= yes, 2= no
			AVERAGE
V414	73		1960-1970: 1= yes, 2= no
V415	74		1971-1985: 1= yes, 2= no
V416	75		1986-present: 1= yes, 2= no
	1-3	7	Survey number
	4		Card number
			HOW WOULD YOU RATE YOUR INSTITUTION'S GENERAL PERFORMANCE IN INTERNATIONAL EDUCATION DURING THE LISTED PERIODS CONT'D
			GOOD
V417	5		1960-1970: 1= yes, 2= no
V418	6		1971-1985: 1= yes, 2= no
V419	7		1986-present: 1= yes, 2= no
			VERY GOOD
V420	8		1960-1970: 1= yes, 2= no
V421	9		1971-1985: 1= yes, 2= no
V422	10		1986-present: 1= yes, 2= no

APPENDIX 11

UNIVERSITY OF ALBERTA ETHICS APPROVAL

DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATIONAL POLICY STUDIES
Research Ethics Review Application -- Graduate Student Form

Name: **HURABIELLE Jacques Pierre Emile** Student ID: **184509**

Short Title of Study: **Canada's International Involvement in Post-secondary Technical Education**

______ M.Ed. Project __✓__ **Ph.D. Thesis** ______ Ed. D. Thesis

______ M.Ed. Thesis ______ Other ______________________________

Members of the Supervisory Committee: **Dr. M. Andrews, Prof. A. Deane, Dr. M. Grace, Dr. J. Kachur, Dr. S. Wilson.**

The applicant agrees to notify the Department Research Ethics Review Committee of any changes in research design after the application has been approved.

____________________ January 6, 1997
(Signature of Applicant)

The supervisor of the study approves submission of this application to the Research Ethics Review Committee.

____________________ Jan 3 1997
(Signature of Supervisor) (Date)

For Office Use Only

Date
Submitted [illegible]

Date
Decision Conveyed ________________

Members of the Review Committee [illegible]

Decision of Committee Approved [illegible] 19 [illegible]
(Approved / ~~Not Approved~~)

Comments: [illegible]

____
(Coordinator's Signature)

APPENDIX 12

LETTER USED TO CONTACT INTERVIEWEES

, 1996

Dear ,

I am contacting you in the context of my doctoral research in International Education with the Department of Educational Policy Studies at the University of Alberta. This research focusses on the origins and evolution of Canadian post-secondary technical education assistance to developing nations. Ultimately, I expect the results of my research to lead to enhanced marketing of international education services, as well as to the expansion of these services.

To place my research in an appropriate framework, it is essential that I gain a sound historical, conceptual and administrative perspective of past international education activities at a representative institution. Furthermore, establishing such background will be very beneficial to my study, for it will undoubtedly attract my attention to important areas of research -- areas I am not aware of at the present time. It is in this specific context that your personal support would be invaluable.

Gaining exposure to the knowledge and experience you accumulated during your term of service with is an indispensable prerequisite to my successfully completing the research. I will take all the necessary steps to make your participation in this phase of my research as convenient as possible. With this in mind, I propose to limit your direct involvement to one session only.

This session, not to exceed 120 minutes in length, will consist of a semi-structured interview. This interview can be held at a quiet place of your choice, and at a time convenient for you. To keep the session short, I will tape the interview; the tapes will be transcribed at a later time. The information sought is not of a confidential nature, and neither the institution, nor yourself will be referred to by name in the study. In addition, the study will be conducted in strict adherence to currently accepted research ethics, as well as guidelines set forth by the University of Alberta and the institution you were associated with. Major interview topics will include the following:

Source identification (Title only) / Origins of international education activities / Mandates of the Institute and Department / Department support / Department staffing / Field staffing / Marketing of services / Regional focus / Focus of programs / Volume of work handled by the department / Characteristics of the clientele / Work evaluation and assessment / Recommendations

I will call you, within ten days of mailing this letter to further discuss my research and your participation in it. Should you have questions or comments please call me at the numbers listed in the letterhead, or via e-mail. I look forward to benefiting from your valuable cooperation in this matter.

Jacques P. E. Hurabielle